OUR WORLD TODAY AND YESTERDAY

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Fannie Longenecker.

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MAN'S CONQUEST OF THE AIR

OUR WORLD TODAY AND YESTERDAY

A HISTORY OF MODERN CIVILIZATION

BY

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AND

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WITH THE COLLABORATION OF

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PREFACE

Although the preface of a book is the last part to be written, it should be the first to be read; for it tells what the author aimed to do in writing his book and what he hopes it will mean to the reader. Since the World War far more interest has been aroused than hitherto in the study of our own times. This eager desire to learn more about Our World Today sends us back inevitably to yesterday for an explanation of the conditions in which we find ourselves. So the object of this book is to recall those happenings in the past of mankind which serve to make our world of today clearer to us by showing the long road that man has traveled to get as far as he has.

We know that today speedily becomes yesterday, last week, last year, last century, and so on back through thousands and thousands of years. When we come to see that the past is made up of todays grown old, we shall then realize that it is not dead. The student, as he reads this history, will see his own present emerging from the past, for it is the yesterdays that have made today what it is. *All this book is really about the present*, since only those events and achievements of yesterday have been included that explain things as they are. It is the hope of the writers that the book will awaken in the reader a lasting interest and curiosity about the ways in which civilization has gradually been built up which will lead him to read many other books and to go on adding to the information given in this brief survey.

In the preparation of Book I, in which our indebtedness to the marvelous contributions of the earlier civilizations is made plain, we have had the benefit of Professor Breasted's broad scholarship and expert knowledge as an experienced archæologist. This part of the volume owes a great deal to his insight.

To those who devote much time to the study of the past the span that separates us from the ancient Egyptian seems to be-

come shorter and shorter, and the history of civilization of the race to resemble the growth in knowledge and experience of any one of us as our own lives go on. The young princess whose picture is to be found opposite page 11 would seem to have sat for her portrait only yesterday, and her charming necklace would be the pride of any modern craftsman.

A departure from the usual custom has been made in grouping the colored maps at the end of the volume so as to form a little atlas. These are referred to by number in the text. It is believed that this plan will encourage a more frequent use of the maps than if they were scattered through the volume. Moreover, a short description and some exercises and questions have been added to each map, to suggest the ways it may be used to reënforce and clarify the narrative. Students should constantly be tracing maps of their own. In this connection we heartily recommend the very convenient series of "Practical Map Exercises" edited by Mr. E. K. Robinson. These contain both outline maps and tracing paper.

The authors believe that the following four works will be found the most useful in supplementing the present account: J. H. Robinson, *Readings in European History* (2 vols.), a collection of extracts from the original sources; J. H. Breasted, *Ancient Times*, the best one-volume account of the early world; J. H. Robinson, *Introduction to the History of Western Europe*; W. R. Shepherd, *Historical Atlas*.

New York City

J. H. R.
E. P. S.

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OUR WORLD TODAY AND YESTERDAY

BOOK I. MAN'S FIRST PROGRESS: THE GREEKS AND ROMANS

CHAPTER I

THE LIFE OF EARLY MAN

I. How Man has built up Civilization

1. Ignorance and Poverty of Earliest Man. How long man has existed on the earth no one knows. Those who have studied the matter most carefully in recent times make various guesses —some five hundred thousand years, some a million. In the beginning he must have lived without houses or clothes or any means of making a fire. He had to invent even language. There were no books or teachers to help him, and so he had to find out everything for himself. He wandered naked and houseless through the woods and over the plains, picking up a living by looking for wild fruit, seeds, berries, roots, and such animals as he might find dead or could succeed in striking down with a stone or stick. As a great English philosopher long ago remarked, the original life of man must have been "poor, nasty, brutish, and short."

We may imagine one of these naked, brutish forefathers of ours sitting in the shade and amusing himself by picking up a sharp stone and scraping the bark off a stick he had at hand, with a view to killing a squirrel that was playing around. He might

happen to sharpen the stick and so make a rude spear, which he discovered could be used to *pierce* an animal as well as *hit* him. In some such way the first weapon better than clubs and stones might have been *invented*. Now to *invent* means to "happen on" or "discover." Man has happened on and found out accidentally very many of the things that go to make up our civilization today.

2. Man Learns by Imitation. One of the great differences between man and other animals is that what one man invents may be imitated by others and become a habit of the whole tribe. An old animal—let us say an elephant or horse—has learned something by experience and is wiser than a young one, but he cannot teach what he knows to the baby elephant or colt. Men and women, however, can teach boys and girls what they have learned. In this way discoveries which have been made from time to time have been passed down from generation to generation and have become more and more numerous, until the descendants of men who could not make a fire or speak a sentence or build a canoe have finally, in modern times, been able to construct an electric furnace almost as hot as the sun itself, dispatch messages around the world, and send great steamships back and forth across the sea. Each new invention usually depends on earlier inventions and these on still earlier ones, until, if we could follow the history of civilization back to the very beginning, we might find the man under the tree making the first spear hundreds of thousands of years ago.

3. Civilization the Story of Invention. The history of civilization is the story of how man invented and discovered all those things which we now have and of which at the start he was ignorant. We nowadays think of invention as going on rapidly, so that anyone may observe that new things are being discovered as he looks around or reads the newspapers and magazines. But in the beginning invention went on very, very slowly, and mankind has spent almost its whole existence in a state of savagery far below that of the most ignorant peoples to be found today in central Africa or the arctic regions.

4. Man's Long History and Slow Progress. If we imagine that man began to make the simplest inventions five hundred thousand years ago, and we let this five hundred thousand years be represented by a line fifty feet long, each foot would correspond to ten thousand years. Forty-nine feet would represent the period before man learned to raise crops, tame and breed animals, make pottery, and weave cloth; the last six or seven inches, the time that he has been able to write; the last three inches, the period during which he has been studying science; the last half-inch, the time since the printing press became common; and the last fifth of an inch, the period since he discovered that he could make the steam engine work for him and carry him about. A great part of the problems of the present day are due to the rapidity with which invention now goes on and changes the conditions in which we live. But our remote ancestors probably lived thousands and thousands of years without experiencing any great changes due to inventions, for it is only during the past five or six thousand years that civilization finally reached a point where rapid progress could be made.

II. Man's Earliest Progress

5. Great Age of Man shown by Stone Tools and Weapons. Of the earliest period of man's existence we have no traces except perhaps a few human bones. It was only when man began to make stone implements by chipping fragments of flint into rude knives and hatchets that he created anything that could last down to our day. How old the most ancient of these stone tools are we do not know. They may have been made as long ago as five hundred thousand years. They are found in England, France, and Belgium, and all around the Mediterranean Sea, especially along river banks, where they were dropped and, as the ages went on, became deeply buried under sand and soil. Along with them are found the bones of tropical animals, for the climate of Europe was warm in those remote times, and the hippopotamus, rhinoceros, and elephant lived where Paris and London now stand.

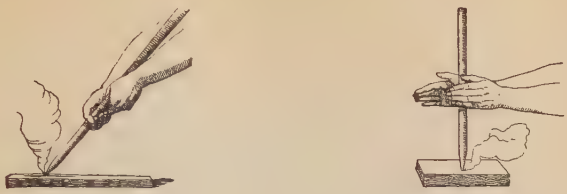
For thousands of years the European savages led the lives of hunters, and protected themselves as best they could with their stone and wooden weapons against the wild beasts and their fellow savages. They built no huts or shelters, so far as we know, and slept on the ground wherever darkness overtook them.

6. Fire and Language. Man must have early made use of the fire resulting from volcanoes or from lightning, which often sets the forests aflame. He was able then to cook his food and keep himself warm. But a long time probably passed before he discovered for himself how to *make* fire, as savages still do by rubbing two sticks together. We know nothing of the invention of language, but man could not have gone far without some means of communication with his fellows.

7. The Cave-dwellers. For reasons that cannot fully be explained the climate grew cold, and the ice and snow, which always cover the highest mountains as well as the region around the north pole, began to creep downward until it covered all England and much of northern Europe. The tropical animals disappeared, and man had to take to living in caves and wearing the skins of animals in order to survive. From the remains now found in the French and Spanish caverns it is clear that man had learned by this time to make flint knives, drills, scrapers, and hammers, and with these could work bone and reindeer horn into needles, spoons, and ladles. He also learned to carve pictures on his implements and to adorn the walls of caves with paintings of fish, bison, deer, and wild horses. These are sometimes beautifully executed and very lifelike. They represent the earliest examples of human art and may go back fifteen or twenty thousand years.[1]

8. Great Advance in the Late Stone Age. At length the climate grew warmer, much as it is today. The traces left by the ice would lead us to think that it withdrew northward for the

[1] According to geologists the ice has advanced and retreated four times. It is now believed that stone implements were first common in the third warm interval, and that it was the cold of the *fourth* glacial period which drove men to their cave life. For a fuller account of early man and the glacial periods see J. H. Breasted's, *Ancient Times*, chap. i.



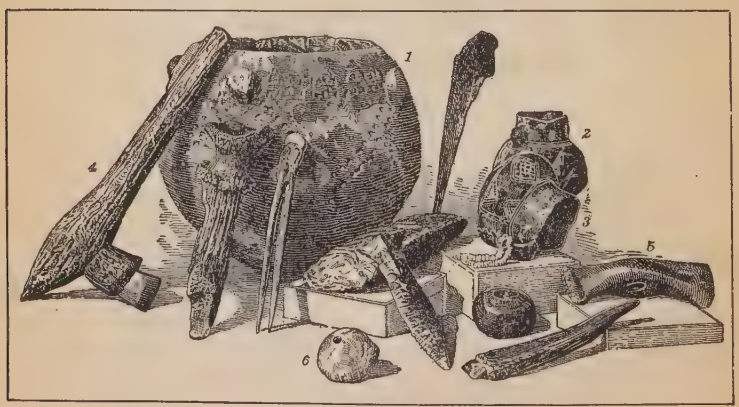
Primitive Methods of Making Fire. (After Tylor)

Implements used by Men of the Stone Age

Paintings by the Hunter-Artists of the Old Stone Age

RESTORATION OF A SWISS LAKE-DWELLERS' SETTLEMENT

The lake-dwellers built their houses on platforms resting on piles which they drove deep into the bottom of the lake. They then constructed bridges to connect them with the shore. The fish nets are seen drying on the rail



PART OF THE EQUIPMENT OF A LATE STONE AGE LAKE-DWELLER

This group shows a large kettle (*1*), and pottery jars (*2* and *3*) crudely decorated. Examples of ground-edged tools are a stone chisel (*4*), mounted in a deerhorn handle, and a stone ax (*5*). Number *6* is a "spinning whorl" of baked clay which, when suspended by a thread and whirled, twisted the thread

last time probably some ten thousand years ago. The progress which man had made by this time in a number of important ways marks this period following the final retreat of the ice as the Late Stone Age. During the long, long era known as the *Early* Stone Age, man knew only how to chip or flake his stone weapons. Now, however, he had learned that it was possible to grind the edge of a stone ax or chisel, as we grind tools of metal today. He was also able to drill a hole in a stone ax head and insert a handle. With the new tools that he had learned to make he could considerably improve his conditions of living. First, with his ground stone axes, hatchets, and chisels he could now build *wooden* huts. Fragments of these houses are found lying at the bottom of the Swiss lakes, among the wooden piles which had supported them. Second, pieces of stools, chests, carved dippers, spoons, and the like, of wood, show that these houses were equipped with *wooden* furniture and utensils. Third, these people had learned that clay will harden in the fire, and were making *jars*, *bowls*, and *dishes*. Fourth, the women had found out how to spin linen thread from flax, and to weave garments out of coarse cloth instead of wearing the rough skins of animals, as their ancestors had done. Fifth, the lake-dwellers had learned to farm and raise grain, especially wheat and barley. Their forefathers had eaten the seeds of wild grasses, when they had been lucky enough to find them; but these men could now depend on their own crops, for they had learned to sow and reap. This was the beginning of *agriculture*. Sixth, these Late Stone Age men had domestic animals, for the mountain sheep and goats and the wild cattle had now been tamed. The ox drew the plow across the fields where he had once wandered in freedom.

9. Rise of Civilization in Egypt (4000–3000 B.C.). Thus far we have followed man's advance only in Europe. Similar progress had also been made all around the Mediterranean; that is about 4000 B.C., not only in Europe but in Asia, and especially in northern Africa, mankind had reached somewhat the same stage of progress. But man cannot greatly improve his condi-

tion without the following three things: *writing*, the use of *metals*, and *government*. The men of the Late Stone Age had none of these things. Moreover, Europe did not gain them for itself unaided,—it *borrowed* them. It was in *Egypt* that these and many other inventions which form a part of our civilization first appeared. The Egyptians were the first, so far as we know, to devise a system of writing, and to discover metal and learn how to use it. In the thousand years between 4000 and 3000 B.C. the Egyptians developed a wonderful civilization, while Europeans still remained in barbarism. Accordingly, in order to understand the later history of Europe, we must turn to Egypt, and see how the Egyptians became the first civilized nation.

10. Sources of our Knowledge of the Past. We have at best only a very imperfect record of the life of early man. For a great part of his history we have to rely on such tools, weapons, and remains of houses and furniture as happen to have been found. With the invention of writing, however, we get far more information; for we have, in addition to the objects men have made, records of important events which we could not have learned about in any other way. It has been customary to call the long ages before the invention of writing the *Prehistoric Period*, and the relatively short time since the invention of writing the *Historic Period*. As the discoveries of excavators and archæologists throw more and more light on the past of man, this old distinction becomes less important.

QUESTIONS

I. Describe man's condition before civilization began. How should you define "civilization"? Give an example of how all inventions depend on previous ones. Mention as many things as you can which had to be invented before a modern house could be built. Mention some things you have learned by imitation.

II. What remains of the Stone Age have been discovered in Europe? Have you seen any tools and weapons made by American Indians? What forced man to live in caves and to invent clothing? How should you be able to live without fire? What were the inventions of the Late Stone Age? What seeds and roots do we use for food?

CHAPTER II

EGYPTIAN CIVILIZATION

I. Beginnings of a Higher Civilization

11. The Invention of Writing. The Egyptians were the first people, so far as we know, to have an alphabet and learn how to write. No people could possibly advance very far in civilization without written records of some kind, or means of sending messages, or books from which they could learn what others had found out. Reading and writing have become so common now that we find it hard to realize what the world would be like if the art of writing should suddenly disappear and there were no books, newspapers, magazines, or letters, and no way of communicating with anyone except by word of mouth.

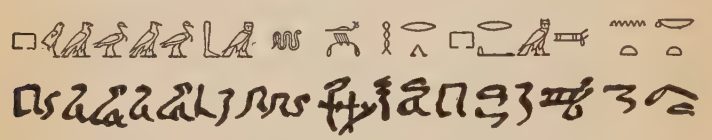
Pictorial Message scratched on Wood by Alaskan Indians

A figure with empty hands hanging down helplessly, palms down, as an Indian gesture for emptiness, or nothing, means "no." A figure with one hand on its mouth means "eating" or "food." It points toward the tent, and this means "in the tent." The whole is the message "No food in the tent"

The first step in the development of writing was the use of crude pictures such as savages often use who have not discovered writing. For an event and even a kind of story can be told by drawing without any writing (see accompanying cut). All writing, whether it developed as it did first in Egypt or later in Babylonia and China, is derived from such pictures.

12. The First Alphabet. As time went on, these pictures, or *hieroglyphics* as those of Egypt are called, came to represent sounds, as well as the objects they had originally stood for. For example (assuming, for the sake of illustration, that the

Egyptian words were the same as the English), the sign for "man" might come to be used and stand for the *sound* "man" wherever it occurred, as in "*man*ner," "*man*ifest," "*man*ifold," "*man*ufacture." In the same way, a bee might become the sign used for the sound "be," and a leaf for the sound "leaf." When used together these signs now formed a new word, "belief." Such *sound* signs could be used in any combination one wished. Writing came, in this way, to represent the *sounds* we make when we speak. All the letters on this page represent *sounds*, not *things*. The advantage of these sound signs is clear when one wishes to express ideas—such as



AN EXAMPLE OF EGYPTIAN HIEROGLYPHIC WRITING

The upper line shows the way in which the hieroglyphics were carved and painted on the tomb walls and monuments. But when the Egyptians wrote rapidly with a pen and ink on papyrus, they simplified the figures, which then were made as they are represented in the lower line

beauty, truth, or virtue—which cannot be represented by pictures of objects. There were twenty-four letters in the Egyptian alphabet, which was used long before 3000 B.C. It was the earliest alphabet known and the one from which our own has probably descended (see Breasted, *Ancient Times*, §§ 51–56).

13. Invention of Writing Materials. The Egyptians early found out that they could make an excellent ink by thickening water with a little vegetable gum and then mixing in a little soot from the blackened pots over the fire. By dipping a pointed reed into this mixture they could write very well. They learned also that they could split and flatten out a kind of river reed, called *papyrus*, into thin strips, and make large sheets by pasting the strips together with overlapping edges. They thus produced a smooth, almost white paper. In this way pen, ink, and

paper came into use for the first time. Our word "paper" is the ancient name *papyr(us)*, but slightly changed.

14. Discovery of Metal (as early as 4000 B.C.). Like the peoples of Europe, the Egyptians had long relied entirely upon flint tools, many examples of which have been found along the river Nile. About six thousand years ago they discovered how to use metal. It was probably in the peninsula of Sinai (see Map 1) that some Egyptian, wandering about, once happened to bank his camp fire with pieces of copper ore lying on the ground near the camp. The charcoal of his wood fire mingled with the hot fragments of ore, and the copper in metallic form ran out. Next morning the Egyptian discovered a few glittering metal globules. Before long he learned where these strange shining beads came from and how to get more of them. At first they were worn as ornaments by the women, but gradually the Egyptians learned that this metal could be given a sharp edge and was far better for tools than the flint that their forefathers had used. They then cast the metal to form a blade, to replace the flint knife they carried. Since the discovery of fire, thousands of years earlier, man had made no advance which could compare in importance to the use of metal.

15. Peculiarities of Egypt. Egypt is a very strange country. It comprises the northern end of the valley which the river Nile has slowly cut for itself across the eastern part of the great desert of Sahara. Egypt includes the triangular *Delta*—a very fertile region to the north of Cairo—and the long, narrow valley of the Nile through which the river winds as it flows northward to its outlet in the eastern Mediterranean Sea. The valley is in most places twenty-five or thirty miles wide, lying between bare cliffs, over which the sands of the desert blow. On each side of the river is a narrow strip of cultivated land between the cliffs and the stream.

16. Long History of Ancient Egypt. The first Egyptian king who governed all Egypt—indeed one of the very first human beings whose name has come down to us—was Menes, who lived about 3400 B.C. The earliest capital of Egypt was Mem-

phis, a huge town very near the site of the modern city of Cairo. Menes founded the first *dynasty*, or family of kings; and afterwards the Egyptian dynasties rose and fell for over three thousand years, until finally a Greek conqueror, Alexander the Great, brought Egypt under his sway (§ 107).

II. The Pyramid Age (about 3000–2500 B.C.)

17. Egypt like a Museum. Egypt is like a vast historical museum, through which the traveler can wander and study the way in which the ancient Egyptians lived and many of the things they made and did. We owe this museum to the Egyptians' firm belief in a life to come after death. In order to enjoy existence in the next world, they thought the body must be preserved by embalming it, and then be safely placed in a tomb where, they believed, no one could disturb its rest. Such well-preserved bodies are called *mummies*. They are generally the remains of Egyptian kings and nobles, who could afford a well-built tomb and the expenses of careful embalming. It was believed that if the dead man was to be happy in the next world, he should be surrounded by the things he had used in his lifetime and by pictures of his former servants, workmen, cattle, and even his dinner table. So the tombs themselves are like museums, for they contain the actual furniture and utensils and jewelry that the rich Egyptian used, as well as statuettes, models, and wall-paintings representing his daily life.

18. The Pyramids. About the year 3000 B.C. tombs began to be built in the form of a pyramid, and about 2900 B.C. the king's architect was able to construct the amazing Great Pyramid of Gizeh, near the ancient Egyptian capital of Memphis. The royal city, with its villas and gardens and the offices of government, has quite vanished, for the structures made of sun-baked brick and wood have long ago crumbled to dust; but the Great Pyramid and a long line of lesser ones (built by later kings) still bear witness to the surprising skill of the Nile-dwellers five thousand years ago.

The Great Sphinx and the Pyramid of Gizeh

PORTRAIT STATUE OF AN EGYPTIAN PRINCESS OF NEARLY FIVE THOUSAND YEARS AGO

This is a portrait of life size, hewn in limestone and beautifully painted in the hues of life. It is now in the National Museum at Cairo

19. Vast Size of the Great Pyramid. The Great Pyramid covers thirteen acres. It is a solid mass of masonry containing two million three hundred thousand blocks of limestone, each weighing on an average two and a half tons; that is, each block is as heavy as a large wagonload of coal. The sides of the pyramid at the base are seven hundred and fifty-five feet long, and its height was originally nearly five hundred feet. An ancient report tells us that a hundred thousand men worked on this royal tomb for twenty years.

20. The Rise and Fall of the Nile. It almost never rains in Egypt, and the sun shines every day, summer and winter, so that the farmers have had to rely for water entirely on the river. But far up the Nile and its tributaries there is plenty of rain in the spring, which yearly floods the valley in which Egypt lies, raising the level of the river twenty-five or thirty feet between Cairo and Aswan. This overflow of the Nile covers the fields each year, and deposits a thin layer of fresh, fertile soil as the muddy waters subside. For thousands of years the Egyptians have been accustomed to store up the waters at their flood and to irrigate their fields during the season when the river is low. (See *Ancient Times*, §§ 46–47.)

21. Egyptian Origin of our Calendar. The rise and fall of the Nile called the attention of the Egyptians to the necessity of accurately measuring time. Primitive peoples are apt to mark time by the coming of the new moon, but the moon month varies in length from twenty-nine to thirty days and does not evenly divide the year. Long before the pyramids were built the Egyptians learned to divide the year into twelve months, all of the same length; that is, thirty days each. Then at the end of the year they established a holiday period five days long. This gave them a year of three hundred and sixty-five days. The Egyptian was not yet enough of an astronomer to know that every four years he ought to have a leap year, of three hundred and sixty-six days, although he discovered this fact later. This calendar has descended to us after more than six thousand years, although later the length of the months was changed.

22. Egyptian Farming. A stroll among the tombs clustering so thickly around the pyramids of Gizeh is almost like a walk among the busy communities of this populous valley in the days of the pyramid-builders; for the stone walls are often covered from floor to ceiling with carved scenes, beautifully painted, picturing the daily life on the great estate of which the buried noble had been lord. The tallest figure in all these scenes is that of the dead noble. He stands looking out over his fields and

CABINETMAKERS IN THE PYRAMID AGE

At the left a man is cutting with a chisel, which he taps with a mallet; next, a man "rips" a board with a copper saw; next, two men are finishing off a couch; and at the right a man is drilling a hole with a bow-drill. Scene from the chapel of a noble's tomb

inspecting the work going on there. These fields, where the oxen draw the plow and the sowers scatter the seed, are the oldest farming scenes known to us. Here, too, are the herds,—long lines of sleek, fat cattle.

23. Craftsmen. On another wall we find again the tall figure of the noble overseeing the sheds and yards where the craftsmen of his estate are working. The coppersmith could make excellent tools of all sorts.[1] The booth of the goldsmith is filled with workmen and apprentices weighing gold and costly stones, hammering and casting, soldering and fitting together richly wrought jewelry which can hardly be surpassed by the best goldsmiths and jewelers of today.

[1] The coppersmiths had now learned how to *harden* their tools by melting a little tin with the copper. This produced a mixture of tin and copper, called bronze, which is much harder than copper (*Ancient Times*, § 336).

THE OBELISKS OF QUEEN HATSHEPSUT AND HER FATHER THUTMOSE I AT KARNAK

The farther obelisk is that of the queen. It was one of a pair transported from the First Cataract (§ 15), but its mate has fallen and broken into pieces. The shaft is eight and a half feet thick at the base, and the human figure by contrast conveys some idea of the vast size of the monument. (From an etching by George T. Plowman)

THE COLOSSAL COLUMNS OF THE NAVE IN THE GREAT HALL OF KARNAK

These are the columns of the middle two rows in the nave (see *Ancient Times*, Fig. 68). The human figures below show by contrast the vast dimensions of the columns towering above them

24. The Potter's Wheel and Furnace; Earliest Glass. We find that the potter is no longer building up his jars and bowls with his fingers, as in the Stone Age. He now sits before a small horizontal wheel, upon which he deftly shapes the vessel as it whirls round and round under his fingers. When the soft clay vessels are ready, they are not unevenly baked in an open fire, as among the Stone Age potters, but in closed furnaces.

Here we also find craftsmen making *glass*. This art the Egyptians had discovered centuries earlier. They spread the glass on tiles in gorgeous glazes for adorning house and palace walls (see *Ancient Times*, plate II, p. 164). Later they learned to make charming, many-colored glass bottles and vases, which were widely exported.

25. Weaving. The picture on another wall shows the women weaving a linen fabric. Although we cannot see how delicate are the threads they used, many specimens of royal linen have been found,—wrapped around the mummies of this time,—so fine that it requires a magnifying glass to distinguish it from silk. The best product of the modern machine loom is coarse in comparison with this fabric of the ancient Egyptian hand loom.

26. Art in the Pyramid Age. The portrait sculptor was the greatest artist of this period. His statues were carved in stone or wood and painted in lifelike colors; the eyes were inlaid with rock crystal. More lifelike portraits have never been produced by any age, although they are the earliest in the history of art. The statues of the kings are often superb. In size the most remarkable statue of the Pyramid Age is the Great Sphinx, which stands in the cemetery of Gizeh. The head is a portrait of Khafre, the king who built the second pyramid of Gizeh. It was carved from a promontory of rock which overlooked the royal city, and is the largest portrait bust ever wrought.

27. Earliest Seagoing Ships. In the Pyramid Age the Egyptians began to extend their trade beyond the boundaries of Egypt. We have some carved and painted reliefs showing us the ships which they ventured to send beyond the shelter of the Nile mouths, far across the end of the Mediterranean to the

coast of Phœnicia (see Map 1). This was in the middle of the twenty-eighth century B.C., and these reliefs contain the earliest known picture of a seagoing ship.

III. Civilization of the Egyptian Empire

28. The Period of the Empire (1580–1150 B.C.). After the great activity and progress of the Pyramid Age there was a long period of hundreds of years of which we know but little, and during which there appears to have been a good deal of disorder and no very striking advance. Another great age came, however, when about 1500 B.C. the Egyptian kings, called Pharaohs, built up a huge empire including a large part of Western Asia and extending far up the Nile.

29. Thebes and its Ruins. Under the Empire the chief city was no longer Memphis but Thebes, lying over four hundred miles up the Nile. The temple of Karnak there contains the greatest colonnaded hall ever erected by man. The columns of the central aisle are sixty-nine feet high. The vast capital surmounting each of the columns is so large that a group of a hundred men could stand on it. Mirrored in the surface of the temple lake, this building made a picture of splendor such as the world had never beheld before.

30. The Treasures of the Tombs: Tutenkhamon. Across the Nile from Thebes, cut into the rocky cliffs which border the river valley, are hundreds of tombs in which the Pharaohs and the nobles of their time were buried. They are adorned with paintings and sculpture, with pictures of the gods and with scenes from the life led by the great of the time, interspersed with magnificent hieroglyphic inscriptions. They sometimes contain the very furniture which their occupants had used,—chairs covered with gold and silver and fitted with soft cushions, beds of sumptuous workmanship,—jewel boxes and perfume caskets of the ladies, and even a gilded chariot in which a Theban noble took his afternoon airing thirty-three or thirty-four hundred years ago. Many of the articles have been removed to the

AN EGYPTIAN NOBLE OF FOUR THOUSAND YEARS AGO COUNTING HIS CATTLE

This entire group is made of wood, brightly painted, and about six feet long. Such miniature representations of Egyptian life were placed in the tomb to furnish the dead man with all the necessities and luxuries in the next world, where these models were believed to become real. This group and many others were discovered at Thebes by the Metropolitan Museum of New York in 1920. (Courtesy of the Metropolitan Museum of Art)

THE TOMB OF TUTENKHAMON

This picture gives a vivid impression of the desert character of the Valley of the Kings. (Courtesy of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York)

museum at Cairo, and there is also a fine collection in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

Recently the interest of the world has been attracted to Egypt by the discovery made by Lord Carnarvon and Mr. Howard Carter of the tomb of Tutenkhamon, a boy king who ruled about 1360 B.C. The great importance of this discovery lies in the fact that archæologists are now able to study a tomb whose inner chamber, where the royal mummy rests, had never been seriously disturbed since the king was buried some three thousand years ago. The tomb proves to be a treasure house containing the most beautiful and costly furniture and ornaments. Scholars are now busy reading the inscriptions, photographing the tomb and its contents, and carefully restoring those objects which have been injured by time.

31. Later Fate of Egypt. The Empire lasted about four hundred years when invaders came from the North in such numbers as to destroy the power of the Pharaohs, about 1150 B.C. The culture of Egypt spread, however, into other countries and greatly affected the whole region around the eastern end of the Mediterranean.

Later, Egypt was conquered, as we shall see, by a number of different peoples, but today it is once more an independent country ruled by its own king.

QUESTIONS

I. Contrast picture writing with sound writing. Give some examples of words which could be represented by pictures and some which could not. What are some of the results of the invention of writing? How was metal probably discovered? Describe some of the important uses of metal today.

II. What conditions in Egypt have served to make it a historical museum? If the Great Pyramid could be set down near your schoolhouse, about how much space would it occupy? Describe some of the chief industries in the Pyramid Age. What is *archæology* (see Dictionary)?

III. Describe the temple of Karnak at Thebes. What treasures have been found in the tombs of the kings of the Empire? What happened to Egypt after the fall of the Empire?

CHAPTER III

WESTERN ASIA: BABYLONIA AND ASSYRIA; THE HEBREWS AND THE PERSIANS

I. Semitic Civilization in Babylonia and Assyria

32. The Semites settle in the Fertile Crescent. The second early civilization to which we are greatly indebted is that which was developed by the Semitic peoples in Western Asia. To the great Semite race belong the Arabs; the Babylonians, from whom we have our division of time into weeks, hours, and minutes; the Hebrews, who gave us the Bible; and the Phœnicians, who furnished us our alphabet.

The earliest Semites were nomads, or wandering shepherds and herdsmen of the Arabian desert who pitched their tents wherever they could find water and grass for their flocks. The great desert of Arabia extends northward as far as a crescent-shaped fertile belt which stretches from Babylonia clear around to the Mediterranean coast. When towns grew up here and there in the Fertile Crescent (see Map 1), they were often attacked by these desert wanderers, who would now and then give up their old nomad life and settle down in the towns themselves.

33. The Sumerians. When the Semite herdsmen drifted into the rich Babylonian plain above the Persian Gulf, they found a people already settled there who had flourishing farms, cattle, sheep, and goats, and who knew how to use copper. They also had towns, with buildings of mud bricks, which, with the surrounding land, formed little kingdoms. These people, whom we call the Sumerians, did not belong to the Semite race, but had much earlier found their way into this fertile region

where they settled near the mouth of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers. We know very little about the Sumerians except that they used a sort of writing by making pictures on soft clay with the tip of a reed. They were thus able to keep their business accounts and other records. Later these rude pictures were simplified into wedge-shaped marks. Their writing, which is called cuneiform, or wedge-shaped (from the Latin *cuneus*, meaning "wedge"), has been deciphered, and modern scholars have learned to read the clay tablets which have been found buried in the mounds of ancient towns in Babylonia.

34. The Semites conquer the Sumerians. About 2750 B.C. the leader of the desert Semites, Sargon, a bold and able ruler, conquered the Sumerians and established the first important Semitic kingdom. The invaders took over the cuneiform characters to write their own language, and forsook their tents, building houses of brick instead. They learned all that the Sumerians had discovered, and in many ways far outstripped their teachers. About 2100 B.C. Hammurapi, another Semitic king, conquered all Babylonia (see Map 1).

35. The Assyrian Empire. There is nothing we need record here between the times of Hammurapi and the rise of the great Assyrian Empire, a thousand years after his death. Other Semitic tribes from the desert had long before founded a little town called Assur and adopted the civilization of the Sumerians to the south. The people of Assur, whom we call the Assyrians, had by 1100 B.C. become an important power. During the next three hundred years they succeeded in conquering the whole of the Fertile Crescent and establishing the first great empire in Asia (about 750 B.C.), which extended all the way to the Mediterranean coast. (See Map 2, A.)

From the Hittites (§ 61) the Assyrians had learned the use of iron, and their forces were the first armies equipped with iron weapons. The famous Assyrian horsemen and chariots (often mentioned in the Bible) became a scourge; wherever the Assyrian armies swept through the land, they left a trail of ruin and desolation.

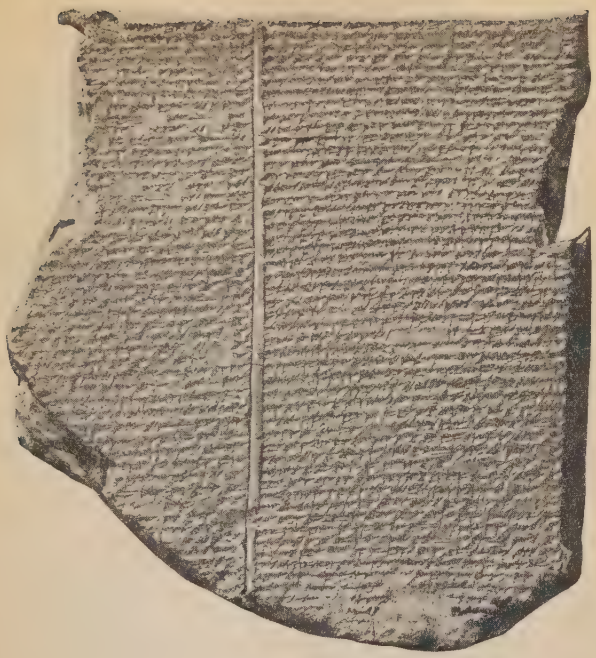
36. Sennacherib (705–681 B.C.) and his Capital, Nineveh. The Assyrian king Sennacherib was one of the great statesmen of the early Orient. At Nineveh, north of Assur, Sennacherib established a magnificent capital for his great empire. Here, in his gorgeous palace, he and his successors ruled the western Asiatic world with a powerful hand and collected tribute from all their subject peoples.

In the excavations made in modern times at Nineveh a great library containing twenty-two thousand clay tablets was discovered. This library had belonged to Assurbanipal, the grandson of Sennacherib, and the last great Assyrian emperor. Scholars who know how to read the books of this earliest library of Asia have been able to give us a very good notion of what the Assyrians and their predecessors had learned.

37. Destruction of Nineveh by the Chaldeans (612 B.C.). But the Assyrian Empire was not strongly enough organized to maintain an army sufficiently large to suppress the revolts within its borders and to deal with the hordes which constantly drifted in from the desert. Assyria found herself unable to resist the invasion of the Chaldeans, another Semitic tribe, which had for years been moving along the shores of the Persian Gulf.

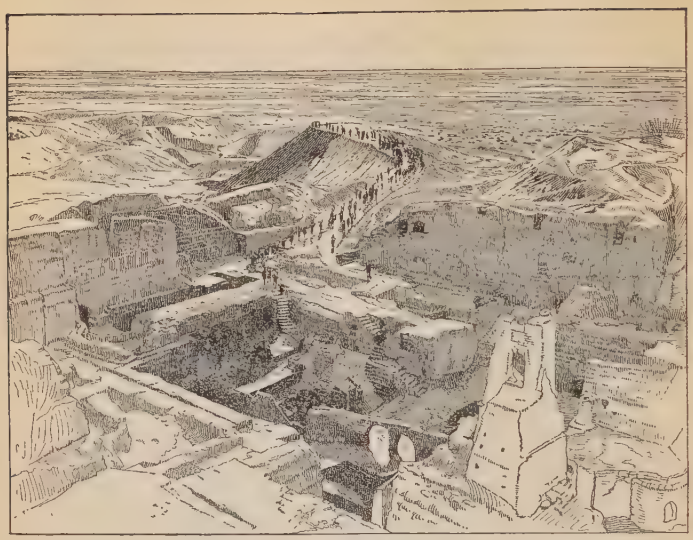
The Chaldeans after conquering Babylonia attacked Nineveh, and this mighty city fell into their hands. With the loss of their famous capital the Assyrian Empire was at an end, and we can hear in the voice of the Hebrew prophet Nahum (ii, 8, 13, and iii entire) an echo of the exulting shout which resounded from the Caspian to the Nile when the nations realized that the terrible power of Assyria was no longer to be feared. Nineveh speedily became the vast heap of rubbish it remains today.

38. Reign of Nebuchadnezzar (604–561 B.C.); Magnificence of Babylon. At Babylon the greatest of the Chaldean emperors, Nebuchadnezzar, began a reign of over forty years, which is vividly portrayed in the Bible. He was able to surpass even his Assyrian predecessors in the splendor of the great buildings which he now erected at Babylon (*Ancient Times*, p. 165). Masses of rich foliage rising in terraces crowned the roof of



PORTION OF OLD BABYLONIAN STORY OF THE FLOOD FROM ASSURBANIPAL'S LIBRARY AT NINEVEH

This large flat tablet was part of an Assyrian cuneiform book consisting of a series of such tablets. This flood story tells how the hero, Ut-napishtim, built a great ship and thus survived a terrible flood, in which all his countrymen perished. Each of these clay tablet books collected by Assurbanipal for his library bore his "bookmark," just like a book in a modern library. To prevent anyone else from taking the book, or writing his name on it, the Assyrian king's bookmark contained the following warning: "Whosoever shall carry off this tablet, or shall inscribe his name upon it side by side with mine own, may Assur and Belit overthrow him in wrath and anger, and may they destroy his name and posterity in the land"



EXCAVATION OF THE RUINS OF ANCIENT NIPPUR IN BABYLONIA

These ruins were excavated by the University of Pennsylvania Expedition in three expeditions between 1889 and 1900. This view shows the work of excavation going on. The earth (once sun-dried brick) is taken out in baskets and carried away by a long line of native laborers, who empty their baskets at the far end of an ever-growing bank of excavated earth. The ruins of the buildings are slowly exposed, and among them are often found clay tablets or objects of pottery, stone, or metal. In this way the records and antiquities of ancient Babylonia are discovered. They lie at different levels, the oldest things nearer the bottom and the later ones higher up. The view to the horizon gives a good idea of the flat Babylonian plain. Only two generations ago the monuments and records of Babylonia and Assyria preserved in Europe could all be contained in a show case only a few feet square. Since 1840, however, archæological excavation, as we call such digging, has recovered great quantities of antiquities and records. Such work is now slowly recovering for us the story of the ancient world. (Drawn from a photograph furnished by courtesy of the University Museum, Philadelphia)

the gorgeous imperial palace. Here, in the cool shade of palms and ferns, the great king might enjoy his leisure hours, looking down upon the splendors of his city. These roof gardens were the mysterious Hanging Gardens of Babylon, whose fame spread far into the West, until they were reckoned, by the Greeks, among the Seven Wonders of the World.

39. Civilization of Chaldean Babylon. The Chaldeans seem to have adopted the civilization of Babylonia in much the same way as earlier Semitic invaders of the Fertile Crescent. Science made notable progress in one important branch—astronomy. This was really at that time only what we call astrology; namely, a study of the heavenly bodies with the idea that one could forecast the future by observing the movements of the sun, moon, and planets. The circle was divided into 360 degrees, and for the first time the Chaldean astrologers laid out the twelve groups of stars which we call the Twelve Signs of the Zodiac. The observations made by these Chaldean astrologers were so accurate that they were actually able to foretell an eclipse of the sun. These discoveries formed the basis of the science of astronomy, which the Greeks carried much further. Astrology was much studied in Europe during the Middle Ages. We unconsciously recall it in such phrases as "his lucky star" or an "ill-starred undertaking." We still use the seven-day week which prevailed in Babylonia. The Chaldeans named the days of the week after the sun, moon, and five planets then known. Three of our days—Saturday (Saturnday), Sunday, and Monday (Moonday)—are still named after the heavenly bodies. The Chaldeans also divided the day and night into twelve parts, each equaling two of our hours.

II. The Hebrews

40. The Semites on the West of the Fertile Crescent. On the western end of the Fertile Crescent there were two other groups of Semitic nomads which we must consider. Along the Mediterranean shore of northern Syria some of the wanderers from

the Arabian desert—the Phœnicians—had settled. They learned to build ships, took to the sea, and became great traders. We shall have occasion to speak of the Phœnicians later, in connection with the story of the Greeks and Romans (§§ 66, 130).

The other Semitic people in whom we are especially interested are the Hebrews. As early as 1400 B.C. they were gradually drifting along the west end of the Fertile Crescent into Palestine. Some of the Hebrew tribes had been slaves in Egypt, but had managed, with the help of their leader, Moses, to escape.

When they reached Palestine, the Hebrews found another people, the Canaanites, already dwelling there in flourishing towns with massive walls. They had comfortable houses, a well-developed government, industries, trade, and writing. The Hebrews settled on the land outside the towns of the Canaanites and gradually adopted their civilization.

41. Rise of the Hebrew Kingdom (about 1025–930 B.C.). Even after the Hebrews had set up a king, the old nomad customs still prevailed; for Saul, their first king (about 1025 B.C.), had no fixed home, but lived in a tent. His successor, David, saw the necessity of a strong castle as the king's home. He therefore seized the Canaanite fortress of Jerusalem and made it his residence. From this new capital David extended his power[1] and raised the Hebrews to a far more important position than they had ever before occupied. His people never forgot his heroic deeds as a warrior nor his skill as a poet and singer. Centuries later they revered him as the author of many of their religious songs, or "psalms."

42. Solomon and the Division of the Kingdom (about 930 B.C.). David's son Solomon delighted in oriental luxury and splendor. To pay for his extravagance he imposed heavy taxes on the people. The discontent was so great that when Solomon died, the Northern tribes set up a king of their own. Thus the Hebrew nation was divided into two kingdoms before it was a century old.

[1] For a fuller account of Palestine and the Hebrews see *Ancient Times*, chap. vii.

There was much hard feeling between the two Hebrew realms, and sometimes fighting. Israel, as we call the Northern kingdom, was rich and prosperous; its market places were very busy, and its fertile fields produced plentiful crops. Israel enjoyed the wealth and luxury of town life. On the other hand, Judah, the Southern kingdom, was poor; its land was barren. Besides Jerusalem, the capital, it had no large and prosperous towns. Many of the people still led the wandering life of shepherds.

43. Beginnings of the Bible. Many thoughtful Hebrews turned fondly back to the old days of their shepherd wanderings on the broad reaches of the desert, where no man "ground the faces of the poor." In the first books of the Bible we find a glorified picture of the Hebrews' shepherd life: the stories of Abraham and Isaac, of Jacob and Joseph, the escape from Egypt under the leadership of Moses, and the early conflicts with the Canaanites.

44. The Hebrews learn to Write. The peoples of Western Asia were now abandoning the clay tablets so long in use (§ 33), and beginning to write on papyrus with Egyptian pen and ink. The Hebrews adopted the alphabet of their neighbors and began to write down their traditions, laws, and religious ideas.

The scrolls containing the accounts of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob—the Hebrew patriarchs—and the teachings of the prophets like Isaiah and Jeremiah were the first books which the Hebrews produced. The portions of Hebrew literature which form the Bible are the great contribution of this people to Western thought and religion.

45. The Destruction of the Northern Kingdom by Assyria (722 B.C.). The Assyrians crushed the kingdom of Israel; and Samaria, its capital, was captured by them in 722 B.C. Many of the unhappy Hebrews were carried away as captives. The hopes of the nation were now centered in the feeble little kingdom of Judah (see Map 1), which continued to struggle on for over a century and a quarter. Judah was now entangled in a

great world conflict, in which Assyria was the most dangerous power. A wonderful deliverance of Jerusalem from the cruel Assyrian army of Sennacherib (701 B.C.) enabled the great prophet Isaiah to proclaim to the Hebrews that Yahveh, their God, controlled all the nations of the world.

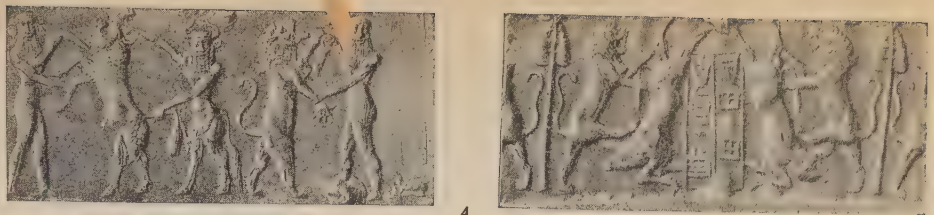
46. The Destruction of the Southern Kingdom by Chaldea (586 B.C.). A century later, Jerusalem rejoiced over the fall of Assyria and the destruction of Nineveh (§ 37). But it had only escaped one foreign lord for another, for Chaldea followed Assyria in control of Palestine. The people of Judah now shared the same fate that the Northern kingdom of Israel had suffered. In 586 B.C. Nebuchadnezzar, the Chaldean king of Babylonia, destroyed Jerusalem and carried away the people to exile in Babylonia.

47. Restoration of the Exiled Hebrews by the Persian Kings. When, forty-seven years later, a Persian king, Cyrus, conquered Babylon (§ 53), the Hebrew exiles greeted him as their deliverer. His triumph gave the Hebrews a Persian ruler. With great humanity the Persian kings allowed the exiles to return to their native land. Some had prospered in Babylonia and did not care to return. But at different times enough of them went back to Jerusalem to rebuild the city on a very modest scale and to restore the magnificent temple that Solomon had built at great cost.

48. The Old Testament. The returned exiles arranged and copied the ancient writings of their fathers. They also added writings of their own. This collection forms the sacred Scriptures of the Jews and the first part of the Christian Bible, called the Old Testament.

III. The Indo-European Peoples: the Persian Empire

49. The Origin of the Indo-European Races. We have seen how Semitic nomads of the Arabian desert had repeatedly shifted over into the Fertile Crescent, conquered the town-dwellers there, and adopted their civilization. To the north



A

B

EXAMPLES OF BABYLONIAN AND ASSYRIAN CARVING

A. These are impressions made with a carefully carved Babylonian seal, which was a little cylinder on which pictures were engraved and sometimes the owner's name. When one of these seals was rolled on the soft clay of a tablet, it served as the signature of the writer. Such seals are found in great numbers in the ruins of Babylonia. The example given here belongs to the reign of Sargon, about 2750 B.C. In *B* we have an example of the beautiful sculpture which adorned the walls of Assyrian palaces. This represents a lion hunt and belongs to the reign of Assurbanipal

Assyrian Soldiers of the Empire. (From Reliefs discovered in the Palace of Assurbanipal)

were peoples of a different race, who pastured their flocks in the great stretch of grassland which extends north and east of the Caspian Sea and westward, across what is now Russia, to the lower Danube. These nomads of the North were the ancestors of the Persians, Greeks, Romans, Slavs, Germans, and English, and consequently of the Europeans and most Americans of to-day. They began moving about at a very remote date. Some of them invaded India, and some of them got as far west as Britain. They are commonly called the Indo-European peoples.

The Indo-European races were destined to conquer the older kingdoms of the Semites and to raise civilization to a far higher point than it had previously reached. Recent investigations indicate that the parent people from which these races sprang were probably occupying the pasture lands to the east and northeast of the Caspian about 2500 B.C. Some of them farmed a little, but their civilization was still that of the Stone Age except for some little use of copper. Besides cattle and sheep they had *horses*, which they rode and which they employed also to pull their wheeled carts. They could not write.

50. The Indo-European Languages. As the parent people dispersed east and west and south they lost all contact with one another. While they originally spoke the same language, differences in speech gradually arose and finally became so great that the widely scattered tribes, even if they had happened to meet, could no longer have made themselves understood to one another. At last they lost all knowledge of their original relationship. But the languages of modern civilized Europe, having sprung from the same Indo-European parent language, are therefore related to each other; so that, beginning with our own language and going eastward across Europe into India, we can trace a number of common words from people to people. Note the following:

English	German	Latin	Greek	Old Persian	East Indian (Sanskrit)
brother	bruder	frāter	phratēr	brātar	bhrātar
mother	mutter	māter	mētēr	mātar	mātar
father	vater	pater	patēr	pitar	pitār

51. Medes and Persians. Of the parent people settled east of the Caspian Sea some called Aryans wandered into India. In their sacred books, which we call the *Vedas*, written in Sanskrit, we find many allusions to their earlier, less civilized life. Other Aryan tribes pushed southeastward toward the Fertile Crescent (see Map 2, B). Of these the most powerful were the Medes and the Persians. After the fall of the Assyrian Empire (612 B.C.) the Medes and Persians became an object of dread to their neighbors, especially to the Chaldeans of Babylonia.

52. The Religion of Zoroaster. The Medes and Persians were as yet far inferior in civilization to the Semites of the Fertile Crescent, but in one respect they had made a great advance. Two or three hundred years earlier a religious teacher, Zoroaster, had appeared among them, who had thought out a religion that was destined to influence us down to the present day. He pondered much on the good and evil in life and the ceaseless struggle between them. The Good became for him a divine being whom he called Mazda, or Ahuramazda, and regarded as *God*. Ahuramazda was surrounded by a group of helpers much like angels, of whom one of the greatest was the Light, called Mithras. Opposed to Ahuramazda and his helpers was an evil group led by a spirit of wickedness named Ahriman. It was he who later became the *Satan* of the Jews and Christians.

Thus the faith of Zoroaster called upon every man to stand on one side or the other, to fill his soul with the Good and the Light or to dwell in the Evil and the Darkness. Whatever course a man pursued, he must expect a judgment hereafter. This was the earliest appearance of the belief in a great judgment day for all mankind.

53. Cyrus and his Conquests. A leader now arose among the Persians, Cyrus the Great, who attacked and defeated his neighbors the Medes (549 B.C.), to whom the Persians had been subject, and made himself master of their territory. He was the first great conqueror and empire-builder of Aryan blood.

With a powerful Persian army that he had rapidly built up, Cyrus marched far to the west into Asia Minor and conquered

the kingdom of Lydia. He captured its capital, Sardis, and took prisoner its king, the wealthy Crœsus (546 B.C.). Cyrus had no trouble in defeating the Chaldean army led by the young crown prince Belshazzar, whose name appears in the Book of Daniel (see Dan. v). In spite of the vast walls erected by Nebuchadnezzar (§ 38) to protect Babylon, the Persians entered the great city in 539 B.C. seemingly without resistance.

54. Greatness of the Persian Empire. With the capture of Babylon the control of the East passed from the Semites into the hands of the Indo-Europeans, just seventy-three years after the Chaldean conquest of Nineveh (§ 37).

All Western Asia was now subject to the Persian kings. In 525 B.C., only three years after the death of Cyrus, his son Cambyses conquered Egypt. This conquest rounded out the Persian Empire to include the whole civilized Orient eastward almost to India (see Map 2, B). The great task had consumed just twenty-five years since the overthrow of the Medes by Cyrus.

55. Our Debt to Egypt and Western Asia. We are now in a position to see what we owe today to the ancient peoples of Egypt and Western Asia whose history we have just reviewed—the Egyptians, Babylonians, Hebrews, and Persians.

These civilizations gave the world the first highly developed inventions, like metal-working, weaving, glass-making, paper-making, and many other industries. They built the earliest sea-going ships equipped with sails to carry on their foreign trade. They were the first to erect large and beautiful buildings adorned with sculptured figures and paintings and enameled tiles. They gave us writing and our alphabet. They invented a calendar similar to that which we still use, and established our division of time into weeks of seven days and hours of sixty minutes. They introduced weights and measures and business methods for trade on a large scale. They made a beginning in mathematics, astronomy, and medicine. They first established government for great masses of people, whether single nations or empires made up of a group of peoples. Finally,

in religion they developed the earliest belief in one God and his fatherly care for his children, and gave us the Bible which is the basis of our Western religions today.

Just as these early peoples accepted the rule of earthly kings without question, so they accepted the rule of gods and demons. They thought that every storm was due to the interference of some god and that every eclipse must be the angry act of a god or demon. They made little inquiry into what we should regard as the real causes of such things. Under these circumstances natural science could not advance very far.

There were, therefore, still boundless things for mankind to learn. *This future progress was to be made in Europe*—that Europe which we left, at the end of our first chapter, in the Late Stone Age. Therefore we must leave Asia and return again to Europe, to follow the great achievements of the Greek peoples.

QUESTIONS

I. Who were the Sumerians? Compare cuneiform writing with Egyptian writing. Describe the Fertile Crescent. How did the Semites get their name? What well-known peoples belong to the Semitic race? Why do historians know so much more about ancient Egypt than about Babylonia? Give the extent of the Assyrian Empire. Find some references to Nineveh in the Bible. What does the Bible say about Nebuchadnezzar? What have we in modern times to remind us of Babylonia?

II. Give a brief account of the history of the Hebrews. Who were the Hebrew prophets? Tell something of the Babylonian captivity of the Jews. What was the origin of the Bible?

III. Tell what you know of the origin and migrations of the Indo-European peoples. Give an example of a word which changed as the tribes of Indo-Europeans dispersed. What peoples today belong to this group? Tell what you know of the religion of Zoroaster. Do its teachings bear any resemblance to Christianity? Describe the development of the Persian Empire. What do we owe to Egypt? to the civilization of Western Asia?

CHAPTER IV

THE COMING OF THE GREEKS — THEIR EARLY ACHIEVEMENTS

I. The Ægean Civilization

56. How Europe gained its Civilization from Egypt and Western Asia. In the first chapter of this history we followed the slow progress of mankind in Europe during the long Stone Ages. We found that in the Late Stone Age, to judge from the remains of villages that have been discovered on the shores of lakes and the banks of rivers, the peoples of Europe had learned to cultivate fields and tame animals, to make pottery, to spin and to weave (§ 8). But with these achievements their ability to progress by themselves seems to have come to an end, and they continued to live for several thousand years in the same state of barbarism.

Meanwhile, in Egypt and in Western Asia men had begun to make wonderful discoveries and inventions and were no longer dependent on the stone tools, rude furniture, and household utensils of the Stone Age. They had learned to write, to use metals, to make beautiful statues, furniture, and jewelry, to weave the finest fabrics, and to erect great and imposing buildings. We must now describe the ways in which the knowledge which they had gained gradually spread into Europe and changed the life of the peoples who were still without the comforts and refinements which the oriental world enjoyed. It was natural that the portion of Europe which lay nearest to Egypt should first be affected; namely, the island of Crete and the region around the Ægean Sea.

57. The Ægean World. The Ægean Sea is like a large lake almost completely encircled by the surrounding shores of

Europe and Asia Minor, while the long island of Crete on the south lies like a breakwater shutting off the Mediterranean. With its hundreds of islands and its fringe of shores deeply indented with bays and harbors, the Ægean forms a region by itself. Its lands enjoy a mild and sunny climate, and its fertile valleys and plains yield rich harvests of wheat, barley, grapes, and olives.

58. Rise of Cretan Civilization under Egyptian Influence. Mariners issuing from the mouths of the Nile and steering northwest would sight the Cretan mountains in a few days. Moreover, merchants and traders pushing westward overland from the Fertile Crescent through Asia Minor would reach at last the shores of the Ægean. So the Ægean islands formed, as it were, a bridge over which the older civilizations of the Orient slowly passed on their way to the Western world.

The leader in this civilization of the Ægean was the island of Crete. Its sun-dried brick villages obtained copper from Egyptian traders as early as 3000 B.C. Somewhat later, Cretan metal-workers discovered how to mold bronze (§ 23 and n.), which they found harder and more durable for making weapons and utensils. They also invented a system of writing, but scholars have not yet learned how to read Cretan inscriptions.

By 2000 B.C. the Cretans had become a busy and prosperous people. They had rapidly learned from the Egyptians how to build and sail ships, so that now their galleys carried far and wide the metal work and pottery which they made in their coast towns. Moreover, their kings were learning to use ships in warfare, and therefore have often been called the "sea kings of Crete."

59. The Grand Age in Crete (about 1600–1500 B.C.). It took five centuries of further progress to carry Cretan civilization to its highest level in what is called its Grand Age. At the ancient capital of Cnossus the older palace was replaced by a larger and more splendid building with a colonnaded hall, fine stairways, and open courts. Its walls were painted with gay and vivid scenes. After learning the Egyptian art of glass-

making, the Cretans adorned their buildings with glazed figures. Their handsome vases, magnificent in design, were highly prized in Egypt, where they have been found by modern excavators in the tombs of Egyptian nobles. The carvings in ivory, exquisite work in gold and bronze, and the wonderful pottery of the Cretan craftsmen rank with the finest examples of decorative art ever produced by any people.

60. Spread of Cretan Civilization to the Mainland (about 1500–1200 B.C.). Up to this time civilization on the mainland both in Europe and in Asia Minor had lagged behind that of the islands. Nevertheless, the fleets of Egypt and of Crete traded with the mainland of Greece. Ægean chieftains after 1500 B.C. built in the plain of Argos the massive strongholds of Tiryns and Mycenæ, and imported works of art in pottery and metal from Egypt and Crete. Some of these have been found in modern times in the ruins of palaces and tombs. They are the earliest evidences of a life of higher refinement on the mainland of Europe (*Ancient Times*, § 364).

61. The Hittites. Across Asia Minor stretched the vast empire of the Hittites, from the shores of the Ægean to the Fertile Crescent, forming a link beween the Ægean and oriental worlds. It was through these people that much of the oriental civilization found its way to the West. One of the most important things we should remember about the Hittites is that they began working the *iron mines* along the Black Sea, and became the first distributors of this metal which was to displace bronze and become one of the main foundations of our modern civilization (*Ancient Times*, §§ 351–360).

II. The Greeks take Possession of the Ægean World

62. Southward Advance of the Indo-European Races: the Greeks. We have seen that the Ægean islands, together with western Asia Minor and the plain of Argos, had developed about 1500 B.C. into a civilized world on the north of the Mediterranean. Farther north, however, there were still numerous

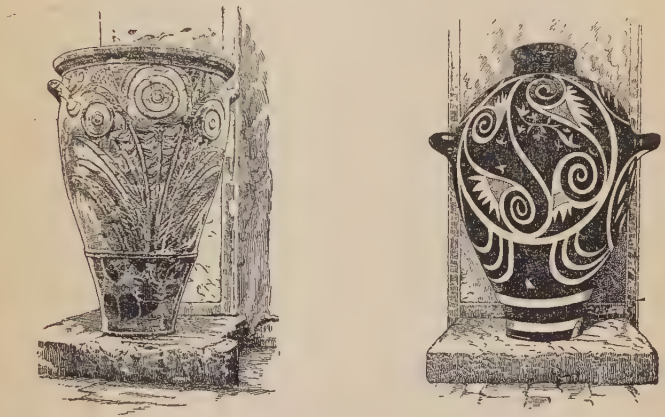
uncivilized peoples in the region of the Balkan Mountains and the Black Sea who were migrating southward. These people belonged to the Indo-European race, whose wanderings finally ranged them all the way from northern India to the Atlantic Ocean (§ 49).

Among these uncivilized northerners were a large group of tribes called the Greeks. While their eastern kindred were drifting southward on the east side of the Caspian, the Greeks on the west side of the Black Sea were also moving southward from their pastures along the Danube. Driving their herds before them, with their families in rough carts drawn by horses, the rude Greek tribesmen must have come in sight of the fair pastures of northern Greece, the snowy summit of Olympus, and the blue waters of the Ægean about the year 2000 B.C.

63. The Greeks destroy Ægean Civilization. Our knowledge of the Greek invasions is very meager, for the Greeks could not yet write and therefore have left no account of their wanderings. It is evident, however, that the various Greek tribes kept on pushing southward, until by 1500 B.C. they were established in the Peloponnesus, where they mingled with the Ægeans, the earlier inhabitants of the region. A century later one of their tribes, having learned a little navigation from the Ægeans, passed over to Crete. Cnossus, unfortified as it was, seems to have fallen an easy prey to the invaders, who rapidly conquered Crete and also seized the other southern islands of the Ægean. Between 1300 and 1000 B.C. the several Greek tribes then established in the Peloponnesus took the remaining islands and the coast of Asia Minor. Here a memorable expedition in the twelfth century B.C., after a long siege, captured and burned the prosperous city of Troy, a feat which the Greeks never forgot. Thus during the thousand years between 2000 and 1000 B.C. the Greeks got possession not only of the whole Greek peninsula but also of the entire Ægean world.

By 1200 B.C. the splendid Ægean towns and their wonderful civilization, the first that Europe had gained, had been largely

Gold Cup from Crete with Design of Wild Bulls



Two Cretan Vases showing Progress in the Art of Decoration

Examples of Cretan Art

The cup shown at the top of this page is made of gold and was found with another similar cup at Vaphio, not far from Sparta, whither they had been taken from Crete. The goldsmith beat out these marvelous designs with a hammer and punch over a mold, and then cut in finer details with a graving tool. His work must be ranked among the greatest works of art produced by any people

IVORY AND GOLD STATUETTE OF A CRETAN LADY

The proud little figure stands with shoulders thrown far back and arms extended, each hand grasping a golden serpent, which coils about her arms to the elbow. She wears a high tiara perched daintily on her elaborately curled hair. Her dress consists of a flounced skirt and a tight bodice tapering to her slender waist. The whole forms a costume surprisingly modern. The figure is carved in ivory, while the flounces are edged with bands of gold and the belt about the waist is of the same metal. She may represent the great Cretan mother goddess or possibly only a graceful snake-charmer of the court. In any case the sculptor has given her the appearance of one of the noble ladies of his time. Even the Greek sculptor never surpassed the vitality and the winsome charm which passed from the fingers of the ancient Cretan artist into this tiny figure. (Boston Museum of Fine Arts)

destroyed by the Greek invaders. The remnants of knowledge which survived formed part of the foundation on which the Greeks were later able to build up a civilization of their own. The Greeks intermarried with the Ægeans and produced a highly gifted race.

64. Origin of the Greek City-State. For a long time the Greek tribes remained a barbarous people continuing to tend their flocks and herds as of yore. But gradually each tribe settled down, gave up its nomad life, and began farming. Villages were built, and the former nomad leaders became "shepherd kings," who ruled over the tribes. In course of time a group of villages would grow together and merge at last into a city. It is important to note this, for the *city* was to be the only country which the ancient Greeks ever had. Each city-state was a nation: each had its own laws, its own army and gods, and each citizen felt a patriotic duty toward his own city and no other.

III. Beginnings of Higher Culture among the Greeks

65. Original Barbarism of the Greeks. The Greek barbarian shepherds for a long time learned little about building or manufacture or art and were not even able to write. Since they could make scarcely anything for themselves, they were glad to buy the various articles which the Phœnician merchants brought to their shores. There was much to attract the Greeks in these cargoes, which were made up of gorgeous clothing, finely decorated tableware of porcelain, bronze, and silver, toilet articles, ivory combs, and glass and alabaster perfume flasks, along with all sorts of jewelry.

66. The Phœnicians. The Phœnicians had succeeded the Egyptians and Ægeans as the chief merchants of the Mediterranean about the year 1000 B.C., and held their supremacy for several centuries. They pushed westward beyond the Ægean and were the discoverers of the western Mediterranean. Their colony of Carthage in north Africa (see Map 4, B) became the most important business center in the western Mediterranean,

I	II	III	IV	V
PHŒNICIAN	EARLY GREEK read from right to left	LATER GREEK read from left to right	LATIN	ENGLISH
𐤀	A	A	A	A
𐤁	ꓢ 𐤁	B	B	B
𐤂	𐤂	C	C G	C.G
𐤃	Δ	Δ	D	D
𐤄	𐤄	E	E	E
𐤅	𐤅	F	F V	F.V.U
𐤆	I	I	...	Z
𐤇	𐤇	𐤇	H	E.H
𐤈	⊗	⊗	...	TH.PH
𐤉	𐤉	I	I	I
𐤊	𐤊	K	...	K.KH
𐤋	𐤋	L	L	L
𐤌	𐤌	M	M	M
𐤍	𐤍	N	N	N
𐤎	𐤎	X	X	X
𐤏	O	O	O	O
𐤐	𐤐	P	P	P
𐤑	M	M	...	S
𐤒	𐤒	Q	Q	Q
𐤓	𐤓	R	R	R
𐤔	𐤔	S	S	S
𐤕	T	T	T	T

TABLE SHOWING HOW THE PHŒNICIAN LETTERS PASSED THROUGH GREEK AND LATIN FORMS TO REACH THEIR PRESENT ENGLISH FORMS

and they even planted settlements as far away as the Atlantic coast of Spain. In this way the Phœnicians spread the art and industries of the East throughout the Mediterranean.

67. Phœnicians carry the First Alphabet to Europe. Long before 1000 B.C. the Phœnician merchants had given up the inconvenient clay tablet of Babylonia, using instead Egyptian papyrus, on which they wrote their bills and invoices in strange little black signs. These signs were alphabetic letters, the first to be introduced into Europe. The Greeks soon became familiar with the Phœnician tradesmen's papyrus bills and receipts and began to write Greek words by using the Phœnician letters. By 700 B.C. Greek potters were writing their names on the jars which they painted, and shortly afterwards writing became common among the Greeks. From the alphabet which the Phœnicians brought to the Greeks all the alphabets of the civilized world

have been derived, including our own. Pen, ink, and paper (papyrus) came into Europe with the alphabet.

68. Homer. Long before the Greeks were able to write they loved to sing the mighty deeds of their ancient heroes. There arose a class of professional bards who graced the feasts of king and noble with poetic tales of battle and adventure, recited to the music of the harp. Gradually the songs of the bards grew into story-poems (*epics*) centering about the siege and burning of the splendid city of Troy (§ 63). They were finally written down about 700 B.C.

Among these ancient singers there seems to have been one of great fame whose name was Homer (see *Ancient Times*, Fig. 161). He was supposed to have been the author of two great collections of poems: the Iliad, the story of the expedition against Troy; and the Odyssey, the tale of the wanderings of the wily Odysseus. These are the only two series of hero songs that have come down to us entire.

69. The Greek Gods. In the Homeric songs and in the tales about the gods, which we call myths, the Greeks heard how the gods dwelt among the clouds on the summit of Mount Olympus. There in his cloud palace Zeus, the Sky-god, with the lightning in his hand, ruled the other gods like an earthly king. Apollo, the Sun-god, whose beams were golden arrows, was a deadly archer, but he also shielded the flocks of the shepherds and the fields of the plowman, and he was a wondrous musician. Above all, he knew the future ordained by Zeus, and when properly consulted at his famous shrine or oracle at Delphi he could tell anxious inquirers what the future had in store for them. The Greeks loved to think of Athena, the warrior goddess, standing with shining weapons, protecting the Greek cities. These three—Zeus, Apollo, and Athena—became the leading divinities of the Greek world, although there were many others.

70. Human Traits of the Gods. All their gods the Greeks pictured in *human* form, possessing human traits, both good and bad. Homer describes to us the family quarrels between the august Zeus and his wife Hera, just as such things must have

occurred in the household life of the Greeks. Gods who showed such human weaknesses were not likely to require anything better in the conduct of men.

The Greeks believed that all men passed at death into a gloomy kingdom beneath the earth (Hades), where the fate of good men did not differ from that of the wicked. As a special favor of the gods the heroes were permitted to enjoy a life of endless bliss in the beautiful Elysian Fields or in the Islands of the Blest, somewhere far to the west, toward the unexplored ocean.

IV. Colonization: Development of Business

71. Search for New Homes: Colonization. While the Greeks were still ruled by kings (1100–750 B.C.) there arose a class of wealthy landowners who got possession of large tracts which stretched for miles around the cities. As a result, the poor farmers often lost their fields, were forced to become day laborers and even sell themselves as slaves to pay their debts.

To improve their wretched condition many of the Greek farmers sought new homes and new land beyond the Ægean world. The vessels of the Greek merchants had by this time ventured into the Black Sea, and here the discontented farmers found plenty of land on which to begin life over again. By 600 B.C. they encircled the Black Sea with their settlements, reaching the grainfields of the lower Danube and getting possession of the iron mines formerly worked by the Hittites. Greek towns were also founded in the delta of the Nile.

Much earlier than this, Greek seamen had perceived the shores of the Italian peninsula, only fifty miles away. Here they founded colonies which by 750 B.C. fringed the coast of southern Italy (they called this region Great Greece). As the Greek colonists had a more advanced civilization than the native dwellers in Italy, progress on that great peninsula may be said to begin with the arrival of the Greeks there. Greek colonists also crossed over to fertile Sicily, and Syracuse became very soon a great city and a center of Greek culture.

72. Development of Greek Business. The merchant fleets of the Greeks were now making their way along the coasts of the Mediterranean, bearing to distant towns their metal work, woven goods, and beautiful pottery. To meet the foreign demand the Greek workmen were obliged to enlarge their shops, which had formerly done no more than supply the needs of a single city. Unable to find the necessary free workmen to help him, the proprietor bought slaves, if he could afford it, and trained them to carry on the manufacturing. The slaves were commonly captives from towns that had been conquered in the constant local wars. Henceforth slave labor became and continued an important element in Greek life. The former shops began to grow into little factories, sometimes employing a score of hands. In Athens, especially, the factories increased to a size hitherto unknown in the Greek world and filled a large district of the city.

SPECIMENS ILLUSTRATING THE BEGINNING OF COINAGE

73. Introduction of Coins. Meanwhile business was stimulated by the introduction of coined money. Not long after 700 B.C. the kings of Lydia, in Asia Minor, following an oriental custom, cut up silver into lumps of a fixed weight. These were now for the first time stamped with some symbol of the king or town to show that the government guaranteed their value. In this way the first *coins* came about. This convenience was greatly appreciated by the Greek merchants and was adopted by them.

The wealth of the Greeks had formerly consisted of lands and flocks, but now men began to accumulate capital in the form of *money*. The custom of lending money at interest came in from the Orient, the usual rate charged being 18 per cent yearly. Men who could never have hoped to get ahead as farmers were growing rich by making loans.

74. The Nobles get Control of the Government: Solon. As the wealthier nobles became more and more arrogant they began to consider themselves the equals of the king whose chief support in war they really were. Neither in peace nor in war could the king control his city-state without their help. This they realized; and by 750 B.C. they had deprived the king of most of his powers, and the office of kingship among the Greeks gradually disappeared. In this way the government came into the hands of the nobles. There was a Council of Elders, to which the nobles belonged, and an Assembly, to which the people belonged, but the latter body tended to grow very unimportant as the nobles got everything into their own hands. It often happened that one noble was able to place himself at the head of the government. Such a noble was called a *tyrant*, and for about a century (600–500 B.C.) it happened that a number of tyrants succeeded in getting control of the states. These men were often good rulers, and sought to better the condition of the poor. In 594 B.C. an Athenian, Solon, a wise and popular noble, was given power to introduce reforms that would improve the lot of the people. He relieved many peasants of their mortgages, and permitted the people to hold some of the lower offices in the state. Even the humblest free citizen was assured a vote in the Assembly and was given the right to have his lawsuits tried before a jury of his fellow citizens.

75. How the Greeks Lived. Although Athens was the most important Greek town, it would have seemed to us a very primitive place in the matter of everyday comforts. The houses were built of sun-dried brick, and would look very strange to us on account of their lack of windows. The front of even a wealthy man's house was simply a blank wall in which there was a door leading into a court, around which the rooms were built. The court was open to the sky and was surrounded by a sort of porch supported on columns. Here in the mild climate of Greece the family could spend much of their time as in a sitting room. From the court a number of doors opened into a living room, sleeping rooms, dining rooms, storerooms, and a tiny kitchen.

The house lacked all conveniences. There was no chimney, and the smoke from the kitchen fire, though intended to drift up through a hole in the roof, often filled the room or floated out of the door. In winter gusty drafts blew into the house, for many entrances were without doors. The only stove was a pan of burning charcoal. Glass windowpanes were still unknown, so the rooms depended for light entirely on the doors opening on the court; at night the dim light of an olive-oil lamp was all that they had. There was no plumbing or piping of any kind in the house, no drainage, and consequently no sanitary arrangements. The water supply was brought in jars, by slaves, from the nearest well or spring. The simplicity and bareness of the house itself were in noticeable contrast with the beautiful furniture and pottery which the Greek craftsmen were now producing.

The city was about a mile wide and somewhat more in length. The streets were merely lanes or alleys, narrow and crooked, winding between the bare mud-brick walls of the low houses. There was neither pavement nor sidewalk, and a stroll through the town after a rain meant wading through the mud. All the household rubbish and garbage were thrown directly into the street, and there was no system of street-cleaning or of sewerage.

76. The Greeks never united into a Single Nation. The Greek city-states never united into a single great and powerful nation. This was in part because the country was so cut up by deep bays and divided by mountain ranges that the various towns were separated from one another. Each of them had its own peculiar habits, its dialect, and its own local gods. But in some cases, where the character of the country favored it, a number of previously small independent city-states were brought together and formed such large and important city-states as Athens, Sparta, Argos, and Thebes. In this way the people of a considerable territory came to regard themselves as Athenians or Spartans.

77. Barbarians and Hellenes. The Greeks, nevertheless, had a sense of being one people in that they all revered the great

Homeric songs; there were also certain gods, like Zeus and Apollo, at whose temples all the Greeks worshiped. Moreover, as early as 776 B.C. they began to hold athletic contests at Olympia every four years in honor of the gods, and in these games all Greeks had a chance to take part. Committees of representatives from the various city-states took charge of the Olympic games and also of the famous temple of Apollo at Delphi. These common interests promoted a feeling of race unity among the Greeks which set them apart from "barbarians," or non-Greeks. They gradually came to call themselves Hellenes, in the belief that they had descended from a common ancestor, Hellen. But the fatal defect in the character of the Greeks was their inability to overcome their differences and unite into a strong and peaceful nation.

QUESTIONS

I. Why did civilization develop in Crete earlier than on the mainland of Europe? Describe the art and industries of Crete. What were the earliest influences of Cretan civilization on the mainland? What contribution did the Hittites make to the advancement of civilization?

II. To what race did the ancient Greeks belong? Describe the invasion of the Ægean world by the Greeks. What became of the Ægean civilization? Describe the origin of the Greek city-states.

III. With what civilizing influences did the Greeks come in contact when they settled in the Ægean region? Tell what you know of the Phœnicians. How was the Phœnician alphabet adopted by the Greeks? Describe the songs of adventure so popular with the Greeks. What celebrated poems is Homer supposed to have written? Describe the gods of the Greeks. Why are they sometimes called *anthropomorphic*?

IV. Where did the Greeks found colonies? Tell something of the development of trade and business among the Greeks. When and where was money first used by them? How did Solon's reforms tend towards democracy? How did Greek houses compare with ours? Why did the Greeks fail to unite into a nation? Were there any national bonds among them?

CHAPTER V

THE REPULSE OF PERSIA: THE ATHENIAN EMPIRE

I. The Defeat of the Persians

78. Persia conquers the Greek Cities in Asia Minor. While the Greek cities were developing their trade and establishing prosperous colonies throughout the western Mediterranean, it will be recalled that the Medes and the Persians were building up an empire to the East more powerful than any the world had so far seen (§ 54). The Persians extended their conquests westward until the Greek cities of Asia Minor, in the midst of their remarkable progress in civilization, suddenly lost their liberty and actually became subjects of Persia. There seemed little prospect that the tiny Greek cities could successfully resist the vast empire which controlled all the resources of the ancient East. Nevertheless, they dared to revolt against their Persian lords. During the struggle which followed, the Athenians sent a number of ships to aid their kindred. This act furnished an excuse to the Persian monarch to attempt to invade Europe and to subjugate the Greeks.

79. The Greeks repulse the Persians; Marathon. The story of how the Greeks bravely struggled against the vast forces of Persia, which threatened several times to overwhelm them by land and sea, has become a favorite story of history. The Persians made three attempts to overcome Greece. The first Persian fleet was wrecked as it rounded a rocky promontory (492 B.C.), and the Persians lost many men in the long march by land which was undertaken at the same time. The Persians determined to invade Greece a second time (490 B.C.) by water. Although they succeeded in landing twice as many men as the Greeks could put into the field, the Greeks were able to take

up such an advantageous position in the hills at Marathon that when the Persian armies attempted to force their way along the road to Athens they were routed and fled to their ships.

80. Athens builds a Navy. Themistocles, the leading statesman at the time, urged the Greeks to prepare themselves for another attack of the Persians by building up a strong navy. He realized that the only way in which the Greeks could be free from the fear of Persia was by becoming mistress of the sea. But he found it hard work to convince his fellow citizens. When, however, ten years later the Greeks learned that the Persians were actually preparing a third attack, they agreed to build a fleet of one hundred and eighty war vessels. An effort to unite all the Greeks against the Persian invaders was unsuccessful. The Spartans, however, joined with Athens on condition that they be given command of the allied fleet.

81. Destruction of Athens by the Persians. By 480 B.C. the Persian hosts were ready, after four years' preparation, to strike once more. They advanced for the third time, by both land and sea. Their numbers were enormous when compared with the forces of the Greeks. The Spartan king, Leonidas, with a small band of five thousand, heroically endeavored to hold the pass at Thermopylæ against the overwhelming numbers of the Persians, and perished with his entire army. As the Persians advanced, the undaunted Themistocles gathered the Athenians together and had them transported to the islands in the bay. As they looked northward they could see the Asiatic fleet drawn up before the port of Athens; high over the hills the flames of the burning buildings on the heights called the Acropolis showed red against the dark masses of smoke that told them that their homes lay in ashes.

82. Defeat of the Persians. In the meantime the Persian ships were finding themselves at a great disadvantage in attempting to reach the Greek vessels, which had retired to the narrow waters between the island of Salamis and the mainland. The huge Asiatic fleet soon fell into confusion before the Greek attack. The combat lasted the entire day, and when night fell

the Persian fleet had been almost annihilated. The Athenians were at last rulers of the sea. By the following spring the Greeks destroyed all remnants of the Persian army and their fleet, not only in Greece but in Asia Minor. They also seized the Hellespont. No Persian army ever again set foot in European Greece.

83. Summary of Early Greek History. We have now reviewed the story of the Greeks during fifteen centuries, from their first appearance as barbarian shepherd tribes to their amazing victory over the Persian hosts.

The next hundred and fifty years, however, are for us the most interesting in the whole history of this marvelous people; for it was during this comparatively *short* period that the Greeks reached the height of their intellectual powers and gave to the world those noble works of art, literature, and philosophy which are still regarded by many as examples of the highest civilization which man has ever reached. But there is a very strange background to this period of intellectual and artistic activity of the Greeks; for the city-states were engaged in almost constant war with one another, wasting their strength and resources, until they finally fell victim to a conqueror in the north—Philip of Macedon.

II. Rise and Fall of Athenian Power

84. The Rise of the Athenian Empire. When the Athenians returned to their ruined city, they did not lose courage. They had achieved a glorious victory, and they now began to dream of a new and greater Athens. They immediately formed a defensive league with the Greek cities of Asia Minor and the Ægean islands, which still feared the vengeance of the Persian king. The members of this federation were to contribute money or ships toward a fleet to be commanded by Athens and used for their protection in case of a new attack by the Persians. The treasury was kept in the temple of Apollo on the island of Delos, and the federation was therefore called the Delian League. The transformation of such a league into an empire of states subject to Athens was but an easy step. A period of great

prosperity in business and commerce began, in which Athens easily surpassed the other Greek states in wealth and importance.

85. Rivalry between Athens and Sparta. It was with a jealous eye that Sparta watched this growth of Athenian power. Unlike the Athenians, the Spartans had no interest in developing art, literature, or business. Sparta was little more than a military camp, with its straggling villages which could hardly be called a city. Proud of their old customs and barbarous habits, the citizens of Sparta lived off their slave-worked lands and the taxes squeezed out of the subject towns, and devoted themselves exclusively to military training. Greece therefore fell into two camps, as it were: Sparta, the home of tradition and privileges enjoyed only by the military class; and Athens, the champion of progress and of government by the people. Accordingly the brief union of Athens and Sparta against the Persians was followed by a fatal rivalry which continued for a century and finally cost the Greeks their independence.

86. The Struggle for Democracy. It will be remembered that through the wise reforms of Solon the people of Athens had gained the right to hold some of the lower offices in the government and to have their lawsuits tried before juries of citizens. The poorer classes had never ceased to struggle with the nobles to win more power for themselves and obtain a form of government which we call a democracy. By this time the people had succeeded in having all the higher officers *chosen by lot*, with the exception of the general in chief, who was still *elected*; so that every citizen now had a chance to hold an office in the government. Moreover, the Assembly of the people had been able to gain great influence in making the laws. But for all this, Athens was not really a democracy in the sense in which we understand the word. For while every *citizen* had the right to vote, not everybody was a citizen. There were thousands of slaves, freedmen, and people from other towns who were not admitted to Athenian citizenship.

87. Athens under Pericles. In 460 B.C. a handsome and gifted young noble named Pericles was elected general in chief. He

put himself at the head of the progressive party and for thirty years maintained his leadership in Athens. Pericles dreamed of a new and beautiful Athens as the center of an Athenian Empire which should dominate the Greek world.

88. Unpopularity of Athens. In spite of her greatness Athens was unpopular with the other Greek cities. Sparta hated her and despised her refinement; the merchants of Corinth were jealous of the business prosperity that had come to her since the Persian wars. The island cities which had joined her in the Delian League wished to withdraw after peace had been arranged with Persia, but Athens would not permit them to do so and forced them to continue to pay tribute to the treasury.

89. The Peloponnesian Wars (459–404 B.C.). Pericles had won popularity with the Athenians by favoring a policy of hostility to Sparta. He greatly strengthened the defenses of the city by inducing the people to construct two long walls from Athens down to the shore so that they could reach the port of the Piræus without exposing themselves to a besieging army. The inevitable war with Sparta finally broke out, and lasted, with some intervals, for over half a century. In the first conflict (459–446 B.C.) Athens, although successful in ruining the commerce of her rivals Corinth and the island of Ægina, lost a large fleet which she had sent to help Egypt in a revolt against Persia. This war was followed by a second and a third conflict,—still more disastrous,—when the Athenian possessions in the north Ægean revolted and received support from Corinth and Sparta. Pericles had to crowd all the people around Athens into the city and within the walls leading down to the Piræus; for season after season the Spartans and other enemies beleaguered the city. The plague brought in from the Orient broke out several times and carried off perhaps a third of the population. In trying to save herself Athens risked everything to repel her enemies. These now included even the Persians, who supported the Greek cities of Asia Minor in their revolt against her. Finally, with the capture of the Athenian fleet by the Spartans, Athens was exhausted. The Spartan vessels blockaded the Piræus and cut

off the supply of food. Starvation finally compelled the city to surrender. The fortifications of Athens were torn down, her foreign possessions were taken from her, and she was forced to enter the Spartan League. The century which had begun so gloriously for Athens with her victory over the Persians closed with the annihilation of the Athenian Empire (404 B.C.).

90. Spartan Rule. Sparta managed to maintain her leadership for over thirty years. But the government established by the victorious Spartans proved even more offensive to the Greek cities than the tyranny of Athens. Small groups of nobles were placed in charge of the cities, with a military garrison to assist them. Such a group was known as an *oligarchy* ("rule of a few"). These nobles were guilty of the worst misconduct—of murdering or banishing their opponents and seizing their fortunes. These atrocities caused frequent revolts of the cities and kept Greece in a state of constant disorder. Finally, the city of Thebes, northwest of Athens, combined with Athens, and after a long war (371 B.C.) crushed the power of Sparta. But Thebes was no more successful than Athens and Sparta in her attempt to unite the Greek cities. Thus the only Greek states which might have welded the Hellenic world into a nation had crushed each other. Hellas was doomed to fall helplessly into the hands of a conqueror from the outside world. Yet in spite of their failure in government, the Greeks made such marvelous progress in art, architecture, literature, philosophy, and science that this period is one of the greatest in history.

QUESTIONS

I. How did the Persian Empire happen to be so close a neighbor to Greece? What led the Greeks to build a fleet? Describe the third and final Persian invasion of Greece.

II. Contrast Athens and Sparta. How did Athens develop an empire? Why was the government of Athens called a democracy? Why was Athens unpopular with the other Greek states? What put an end to the constant fighting among the Greek city-states? Why were these struggles called the Peloponnesian wars?

CHAPTER VI

THE GREATNESS OF THE GREEKS

I. Progress in Science and Art

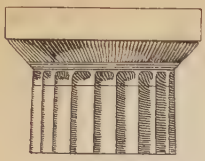
91. What we owe the Greeks. The Greeks were to become the great teachers of our Western world. Their artists, architects, writers, and thinkers designed public buildings, carved statues, and wrote poems, plays, histories, and philosophical books which have formed the standards for all following generations. Their books are the earliest ones, with the exception of the Bible, that we still read; their language is still taught in our schools and colleges; and their buildings are often copied when we erect a handsome library or bank. Many good judges feel that no people have ever written such beautiful and profound books as they did. But while we rightly respect and copy the Greeks, they themselves were not copiers or imitators. They wrote the language that they used in everyday conversation, paying no attention to foreign or dead languages; and they developed so much originality that they went far beyond anything that mankind had ever done before.

92. The Sophists. There were no public schools in Athens, but the boys were sent to the homes of private teachers—often poor foreigners or old soldiers—who taught them reading and writing and some music (upon which the Greeks laid great stress). The girls did not go to school. The more ambitious boys who had finished their studies under the pedagogue might wish to fit themselves to take part in public life, and sometimes attended courses of lectures given by teachers called *Sophists*, a new kind of lecturer, who wandered from city to city. The Sophists trained their pupils in public speaking and also taught them mathematics and astronomy.

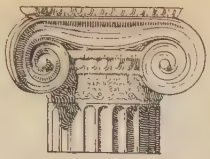
93. Progress in Science and Medicine. Science had begun to be cultivated in the Greek cities of Asia Minor before the Persian wars. In the early sixth century Thales of Miletus was the first Greek to predict the eclipse of the sun and to conclude that the planets and stars were governed by natural laws and not by the whims of the gods. In southern Italy a celebrated Greek philosopher, Pythagoras, founded a school of philosophy and carried on the study of geometry. Among the sciences medicine made the most progress. The Greek physicians rejected the older belief that disease was caused by evil demons, and endeavored to find the natural causes of an ailment by studying the organs of the body. The greatest physician of the time was Hippocrates, who became the founder of scientific medicine.

94. Athletics. If the wealth of his family permitted, the young Athenian spent much of his time on the new athletic fields. On the north of Athens was the field known as the Academy. There was a similar athletic ground, called the Lyceum, on the east of the city. The later custom of holding courses of lectures in these places resulted in giving the words "academy" and "lyceum" the associations they now possess for us. The chief events in the famous athletic contests at Olympia were boxing, wrestling, running, jumping, casting the javelin, and throwing the discus. To these, other contests were afterwards added, especially chariot and horseback races.

95. Greek Buildings. The great public buildings of Greece from which we get our ideas of Greek architecture were temples, and not offices of the government,—capitols or courthouses,—as they are with us today. This was because the patriotism of the Greeks was largely a religious feeling of reverence for the gods who protected the State. When the Athenians came to share the dream of their leader, Pericles, of a new and beautiful Athens controlling a great empire, they voted to spend a vast sum for the reconstruction of the ancient temples of the gods on the Acropolis, which had not been restored since the Persians burned the city. The Parthenon, the temple of the patron goddess



Doric



Ionic

Corinthian

Temple of Neptune at Pæstum (Doric)

Temple of Victory at Athens
(Ionic)

Temple of Jupiter at Athens
(Corinthian)

Styles of Greek Architecture

Lincoln Memorial, Washington

La Madeleine, Paris

Modern Buildings showing our Indebtedness to Greek Architecture

Athena, was rebuilt on a scale of beauty and magnificence hitherto unknown in Greece. It is the most celebrated building in the world. Phidias, the greatest of the Athenian sculptors, designed the famous frieze, a band of carved marble reliefs extending clear around the building. This portrayed the people of Athens moving in a stately religious procession. The figures of the men and horses are of unrivaled beauty and grace. Inside the new temple rose the gigantic figure of the goddess Athena, wrought in gold and ivory by the masterly hand of Phidias.

96. Sculpture. On the athletic field the Greek sculptors had an excellent opportunity to study the human form in various poses as they watched the athletes in their games. They caught the beauty of line, balance, and rhythm which have given their art its perfection. Sculpture changed much as time went on. The statues of men and women were no longer modeled in the rigid and severe form which had at first prevailed. Praxiteles (flourished 364–330 B.C.), by far the most famous sculptor of his day, set the example of a more human and natural way of carving his marble figures. His gods and goddesses appear as very lovely and ideal human beings in graceful attitudes, with care-free faces.

II. Literature and Philosophy: Plato and Aristotle

97. The Theater; Tragedy. The Greeks were the first people to develop the theater, and to write plays which are still sometimes performed. Their theater would seem strange to us now, however; for although they had a stage, there was little or no scenery; and the actors, who were always *men*, wore grotesque masks. The narrative was carried on largely in song, by the chorus; but this was sometimes varied by the dialogue of the actors. The whole was more like an opera than a modern play.

Their first great playwright was Æschylus (525?–456 B.C.). In his tragedy *The Persians* he told his fellow citizens of the mighty purpose of the gods in saving Hellas from the Asiatic invaders. Sophocles, who followed Æschylus, is considered their

greatest dramatist, and was the most admired by the Athenians. His plays turned on the old stories of the Greek heroes—Ajax, Œdipus, Hercules, Antigone, and Electra. They concern revenge, remorse for sin, and wounded pride, and made a vivid impression on the audiences. Sophocles (496?–405 B.C.) still believed in the gods; but his later rival, Euripides (480?–406 B.C.), was what we should call a skeptic. While he used the same familiar stories, he shocked the old-fashioned citizens by doubting the existence of the gods and by questioning many things which the people took for granted. He is the most modern of the three great tragedians and consequently makes more appeal to us than either of the others.

98. Comedy. The great tragedies were given in the morning, and in the afternoon the people were ready for less serious plays (comedies). In these plays leading politicians, writers, and philosophers were made fun of while the multitudes of Athens roared with laughter. The best-known comedy writer was Aristophanes (450?–385 B.C.), who deserted the old themes and called his plays by such names as *The Frogs*, in which he makes sport of his fellow townsman Euripides, and *The Clouds*, in which he represents the great philosopher Socrates, who was very progressive, as a dirty old impostor. In short, he pretended to have no sympathy with the new ideas of his time.

99. The First Historians: Herodotus and Thucydides. In contrast to the *legends* of former times, which were revived in the theater, the Greeks now began to have *accounts of actual events* in their own recent past. Herodotus, the first great historian, had traveled widely throughout Egypt, Asia, and the Mediterranean world. In his history, which appeared about 447 B.C., he told what he had learned in his journeys, and closed with an account of the great struggle between Greece and Persia, in which he described Athens as playing the leading part. Herodotus is often called the "father of history."

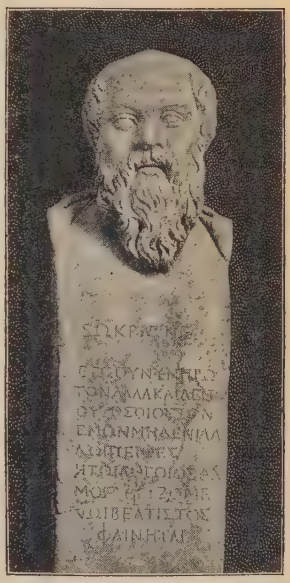
The history of Herodotus had represented the fortunes of nations as due to the will of the gods. A generation later Thucydides, with point of view like that of modern historians, traced

THE PARTHENON

After the restored model in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City

historical events to their earthly causes in the world of men where they occur. The history of Thucydides, which was an impartial account of the wars between the Greek states, has been one of the world's greatest prose classics ever since.

100. Socrates. The one who did most to encourage the discussion of important matters was the philosopher Socrates, who led a life of poverty. He was accustomed to stand about the market place all day long, entering into conversation with anyone he met and asking many questions very hard to answer. He asked, for instance, what was meant by justice, virtue, duty, love, and reason. He called attention to a great many things which were accepted without thinking, and this irritated his fellow citizens, for they did not want to change their minds any more than people do today. Socrates' method of teaching, by question and answer, has never been forgotten, and is known as the "Socratic method."



Portrait of Socrates

But the aims and noble efforts of Socrates were misunderstood, for his keen observations seemed to undermine all the old beliefs. The Athenians summoned him to trial for corrupting the youth with all sorts of doubts and impious teachings. When the court voted the death penalty, he passed his last days in tranquil conversation with his friends and pupils, in whose presence he quietly drank the fatal hemlock poison.

101. Plato (427–347 B.C.) and his Dialogues. Plato, by far the most gifted of the pupils of Socrates, wrote out much of his master's teachings in the form of imaginary conversations between Socrates and those who flocked around him to discuss the

problems of man's nature and duty. These *Dialogues* are so charming and profound that they are still ranked among the most wonderful books of all the ages. They give us a lively idea of the informal way in which the intellectual Athenians were wont to meet in the market place or in the house of some thoughtful citizen and confer together on the good, the true, and the beautiful. Among the most famous of the *Dialogues* are those describing Socrates' defense of his teaching against his accusers and the calm manner in which he cheerfully discussed the immortality of the soul with his companions while he sat in prison. It is through the writings of Plato that we learn most of what we know of Socrates, for he himself wrote nothing.

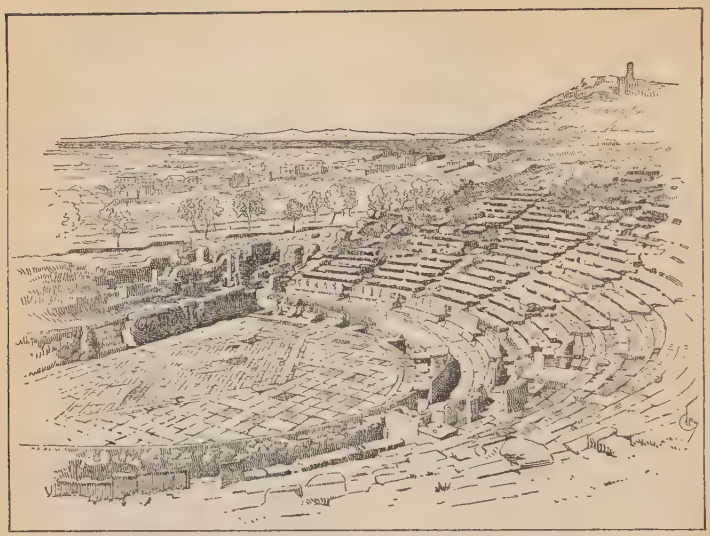
102. Aristotle (384–322 B.C.). One of Plato's students, Aristotle,was destined to gain a reputation through the ages greater even than that of his master. With the help of his advanced students Aristotle composed treatises on almost every imaginable subject: politics, ethics, economics, psychology, zoölogy, astronomy, poetry, and the drama. Indeed, it seems to have been his ambition to tell everything that had ever been discovered and to present this information in such a way that others could easily learn it. His skill and knowledge were so great that in the Middle Ages his books were almost the only ones studied in the medieval universities, and he is still revered as perhaps the greatest scholar that the world has ever produced. Certainly the writings of no other man have ever enjoyed such long and widespread and unquestioned authority.

QUESTIONS

I. Who were the Sophists? Mention some of the early Greek scientists. Tell something of the Greek interest in athletics. Describe the most celebrated building in Athens.

II. Tell something of the plays given in the Greek theaters. Contrast their theater with ours. Define a tragedy; a comedy. Give some modern examples. Compare the first Greek historians. Tell something of Socrates and his method of teaching. What kind of works did Plato write? Why is Aristotle called the "master of those who know"?

THE SO-CALLED TEMPLE OF THESEUS, THE AREOPAGUS, AND THE ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS



THE THEATER OF ATHENS

This theater was the center of the growth and development of Greek drama, which began as a part of the celebration of the spring feast of Dionysus, god of the vine and the fruitfulness of the earth. The temple of the god stood here, just at the left. Long before anyone knew of such a thing as a theater, the people gathered at this place to watch the celebration of the god's spring feast, where they formed a circle about the chorus, which narrated in song the stories of the gods. This circle (called the orchestra) was finally marked out permanently, seats of wood for the spectators were erected in a semi-circle on one side; the singing and action all took place in the circle on the level of the ground. On the side opposite the public was a booth, or tent (Greek, *skēnē*, "scene"), for the actors, and out of this finally developed the stage. Here we see the circle, or orchestra, with the stage cutting off the back part of the circle. The seats are of stone and accommodated possibly seventeen thousand people. The fine marble seats in the front row were reserved for the leading men of Athens. The old wooden seats were still in use in the days when Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides presented their dramas here. From the seats the citizens had a grand view of the sea and the island of Ægina, and, as orchestra and seats continued roofless, a Greek theater was always open to the sky

CHAPTER VII

HOW THE ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE GREEKS REACHED OTHER PEOPLES

I. Alexander the Great and his Empire

103. Philip of Macedon conquers the Greeks. While the Greeks were exhausting their strength in the long Peloponnesian wars, a new power to the north, Macedonia, was slowly gaining in strength and building up its civilization. Its first king of importance was Philip. He had had a Greek education, and when he came into control of Macedonia in 360 B.C. he understood perfectly the plight of the disunited Greek world, and determined to make himself its master. His first step was to create a new and powerful army made up of infantry, which fought in *phalanxes* (or compact bodies of warriors trained to work together), and cavalry, which also moved about in masses and supported the phalanxes.

Philip steadily extended the territory of his kingdom northward and eastward until it reached the Danube and the Hellespont. His progress soon brought him into conflict with the Greek states, which controlled cities in this region. After a long series of hostilities Philip defeated the Greek forces in a final battle of Chæronea (338 B.C.) and firmly established his position as head of a league of all the Greek states except Sparta, which still held out against him. Two years later he was stabbed by conspirators during the revelries at the wedding of his daughter (336 B.C.).

104. Education of Alexander the Great. The kingship passed into the hands of Philip's son Alexander, a youth of only twenty years. Seven years before, when Alexander was thirteen, his father had summoned the great philosopher Aristotle to be the

teacher of the young prince. Under his instruction Alexander had learned to know and love the masterpieces of Greek literature, especially the Homeric songs.

105. Alexander subjugates the Greek States. The Greek states fancied they could easily overthrow so young a ruler as Alexander. They were soon to learn how shrewd a head there was on his shoulders. When Thebes revolted against Macedonia, Alexander captured and completely destroyed the city, thus teaching all Greece to fear and respect his power. The Greek states, accordingly, with the exception of Sparta, formed a league and elected Alexander as its leader and general. As a result they all sent troops to increase his army.

106. Alexander, the Champion of Hellas against Asia. The Asiatic campaign which Alexander now planned was to make it clear that he was the champion of Hellas against Asia and its Persian rulers. Leading his army into Asia Minor he met the enemy at the river Granicus (334 B.C.) and had no difficulty in scattering their forces. Marching southward he retook the Greek cities long subject to the Persians and freed all western Asia Minor forever from the Persian yoke.

Alexander then pushed boldly eastward. At Issus he engaged the main army of Persia under the personal command of King Darius III, the last of the Persian line. The Macedonians swept the Asiatics from the field, and the disorderly retreat of Darius never stopped until the Euphrates had been crossed. The Persian king then sent to Alexander desiring peace and offering to hand over to the Macedonians all Asia west of the Euphrates. Alexander's friends advised him to accept the terms. But before the eyes of the young king there rose a vision of a vast empire permeated by Greek civilization. He waved aside his counselors and determined to conquer the whole Persian Empire.

107. Alexander Lord of the Ancient East (330 B.C.). Having cut off the fleet of the Persians by capturing all their seaports, Alexander quickly subdued Egypt and then returned to Asia. Marching eastward along the Fertile Crescent he crossed the

Tigris close by the mounds which had long covered the ruins of Nineveh. Here, near Arbela, Darius had gathered his forces for a last stand (see Map 4, A). Although greatly outnumbered, the Macedonians crushed the Asiatic army and forced the Persians into disgraceful flight. In a few days Alexander was living in the winter palace of the Persian king in Babylon.

At last both the valley of the Nile and the Fertile Crescent, the homes of the two earliest civilizations, were in the hands of a *European* power and under the control of a newer and higher civilization. Less than five years had passed since the young Macedonian had entered Asia.

108. Alexander's Extensive Campaigns (330–324 B.C.). In the course of the next few years Alexander extended his conquests to the north and then marched southeast, crossing the frontiers of India, where at last the complaints of his weary troops forced him to turn back. At important points along his line of march he had founded cities, which he often named after himself, and had set up kingdoms which were to be centers of Greek influence as far as the frontiers of India.

109. Death of Alexander (323 B.C.). Alexander now prepared for a campaign to subjugate the Arabian peninsula and seems to have intended later to undertake the conquest of the western Mediterranean. In the midst of his preparations he fell sick, probably as the result of a drunken feast, and after a few days died (323 B.C.). He was thirty-three years of age and had reigned thirteen years.

110. Division of Alexander's Realm; the Ptolemies in Egypt. After a generation of wars Alexander's empire fell into three main parts,—in Europe, Asia, and Africa,—with one of his generals, or one of their successors, at the head of each. In Europe, Macedonia was in the hands of Antigonus, grandson of one of Alexander's commanders, who endeavored also to maintain control of Greece. In Asia most of the territory of the former Persian Empire was under the rule of Alexander's general Seleucus, who founded the important city of Antioch. In Africa, Egypt was held by Ptolemy, one of the ablest of Alexander's leaders.

He was the first of a dynasty or family of kings, whom we call the Ptolemies (see Map 4, B). These rulers resided at Alexandria, the most important of Alexander's new cities on the coast of the Nile delta.

II. The Civilization of the Hellenistic Age

111. The Hellenistic Age. The three centuries following the death of Alexander are called the Hellenistic Age, meaning the

Restoration of the Public Buildings of Pergamum, a Hellenistic City of Asia Minor. (After Thiersch)

Pergamum, on the west coast of Asia Minor, became a flourishing city-kingdom in the third century B.C. under the successors of Alexander the Great. The dwellings of the citizens were all lower down, in front of the group of buildings shown here. These public buildings stand on three terraces—lower, middle, and upper. The large *lower* terrace (*A*) was the main market place, adorned with a vast square marble altar of Zeus, having colonnades on three sides, beneath which was a long sculptured band (frieze) of warring gods and giants. On the *middle* terrace (*B*), behind the colonnades, was the famous library of Pergamum, where the stone bases of library shelves still survive. The *upper* terrace (*C*) once contained the palace of the king; the temple now there was built by the Roman Emperor Trajan in the second century of the Christian Era

period in which Greek civilization spread throughout the ancient world. The peoples of Egypt and Western Asia now had Greek-speaking rulers and were constantly carrying on business with Greek merchants; they found many Greek books to read

and Greek plays to attend. Greek thus gradually became the prevailing language of the great cities of the Western world and of an enormous area bordering the eastern Mediterranean and extending far into Asia.

112. The Splendor of Alexandria. In population, wealth, commerce, and in all the arts of civilization, Alexandria was now the greatest city of the ancient world. As the traveler sailed into its spacious harbor the splendid marble buildings of Alexandria, embowered in masses of tropical verdure, presented a magnificent spectacle. Here under the rule of the Ptolemies science and learning were encouraged and supported.

113. The Alexandrian Scientists. The scientific men and scholars of Alexandria lived together at the *Museum*, a sort of university where they were paid salaries. They formed the first scientific institution supported by a government. They were the forerunners of systematic scientific research, and their books were regarded as authorities for nearly two thousand years, until science took a new start in modern times.

The most famous mathematician among them was Euclid, whose geometry is still retained in England as a schoolbook—the oldest schoolbook in use today. At the astronomical observatory built by the Ptolemies important observations and discoveries were made. Eratosthenes, an astronomer, very cleverly computed the size of the earth within fifty miles of its true diameter. He also wrote a geography which was more accurate than any written before his time. It contained the first map having a cross-net of lines indicating latitude and longitude. This enabled him to indicate the location of any spot on the earth far more exactly than had been possible before.

114. New Inventions. More gifted even than Euclid was Archimedes, who lived in the old Greek colony of Syracuse, but was in close correspondence with his friends at Alexandria. He made many interesting discoveries, including that of specific gravity. He sometimes deigned to think about practical matters, and amused himself by arranging a series of pulleys and levers which enabled him, by turning a crank, to launch a

large vessel which stood fully loaded on the wharf. This created much astonishment, but seemed to Archimedes very unimportant when compared to his abstract speculations.

Several practical inventions were made at this time; for example, screws, cogwheels, levers, and derricks were introduced, which made it possible to raise and lower heavy bodies far more conveniently than ever before.

115. The Alexandrian Library and Book Publishing. In addition to the interest taken in the natural sciences, the study of literature made great progress. The vast library of the Ptolemies far surpassed all other libraries of the time, containing finally over half a million volumes. It required an immense amount of editing and copying by hand to make from old and often badly written manuscripts of famous works the accurate editions needed for this great collection. In order to correct these older texts a critical knowledge of language was necessary, and so Alexandrian scholars began to write the first grammars and dictionaries. The copies made by these librarians and scholars became the standard editions on which other ancient libraries and copyists depended. It is from these "Alexandrian editions" that most of the manuscripts preserved in the libraries of Europe are descended, and from these in turn have come our printed editions of Homer and other Greek authors.

116. Schools of the Stoics and Epicureans. Athens was still the chief center of philosophy. The youth who went there to take up philosophical studies found the successors of Plato still continuing his teachings in the quiet grove of the Academy (§ 101), where his memory was greatly revered. Plato's pupil Aristotle, after having been the teacher of the young Alexander, had returned to Athens, and had also established a school of his own at the Lyceum. Two other schools of philosophy which have become famous arose at Athens. The first was the *Stoic* school, which derived its name from a portico called the *stoa*. The Stoics believed in a god who had arranged all natural things for man's benefit. The great aim of life was to rise above both temporary pleasures and discomforts and to keep one's

EXAMPLE OF HELLENISTIC STATUARY

The kings of Pergamum had to repel an invasion of the Gauls from the North, and this struggle is represented on one of the surviving pieces of sculpture. Here we have one of the defeated Gallic chieftains, who with one hand supports his dying wife and with the other plunges his sword into his own breast, at the same time casting a terrified glance at the pursuing enemy. The tremendous power of the barbarian's muscular figure is in startling contrast with that of the helpless fainting woman

SCULPTURES FROM THE HELLENISTIC CITY OF PERGAMUM

Above is a Gallic trumpeter as he sinks in death with his trumpet at his feet. Below is a part of the frieze around the great altar of Zeus at Pergamum. It pictures the mythical struggle between gods and giants. A giant at the left, whose limbs end in serpents, raises over his head a great stone to hurl it at the goddess on the right

mind on the goodness of God and the brotherhood of man. The Stoics more closely resembled the Christians than any other of the schools. We still use the word "Stoic" for one who bravely bears misfortune. The second, the *Epicurean* school, founded by Epicurus, taught that man should seek happiness by getting over his needless worries in regard both to the gods and death. The gods, the Epicureans believed, had not made the world, and took no interest in man, neither helping him nor punishing him. They further denied that there was any life after death. The original Epicureans believed in leading a simple life, since that brought less worry, but their denial of the gods' influence and the immortality of the soul led them to be accused of seeking pleasure as life's great end. Hence our modern use of the word "epicure" for one who pays too much attention to eating and drinking. The School of Epicurus, like that of the Stoics, flourished and attracted many disciples; for highly educated men no longer thought of the gods in the old way, and Stoicism or Epicureanism served as their religion and guide in life.

117. The Hellenistic World conquered by Rome. The older Greek states had become part of a larger world which had grown up as the result of Alexander's conquest of Greece and the Orient. But this Hellenistic world of the *eastern* Mediterranean was destined, shortly after 200 B.C., to fall under the control of a new military state in the *western* Mediterranean. For three centuries the city of Rome had been developing a power which was to unite the East and the West into a vast empire including the *whole* Mediterranean.

QUESTIONS

I. What impressions have you of Alexander the Great? How were his realms divided at his death?

II. What is meant by "the Hellenistic Age"? Describe the way in which the Greek language and civilization spread eastward. What was the Museum in Alexandria? For what are Archimedes and Euclid celebrated? What is meant by "geometry"? What progress was made in geography at this time? Contrast the Stoics and Epicureans.

CHAPTER VIII

THE BEGINNINGS OF ROME

I. The Importance of Rome in Western Civilization

118. Rome, the "Eternal City." Of all the great cities of Europe today, Rome, the capital of modern Italy, has the longest and most fascinating history. It is the most celebrated city in the world. Starting as a tiny market place on the Tiber, it became the first great city of western Europe, and finally ruled an empire which reached from Britain to the Caspian Sea. It controlled all the lands we have so far studied about in Europe and the western part of Asia, and far more (see Map 5).

How profoundly this vast Roman Empire affected the development of the Western world we shall realize as we proceed with the story of European history. It is not hard to find, even today, actual remains of some of its wonderful buildings,—its baths, theaters, massive walls, bridges, and monumental arches, —which after two thousand years still bear witness to Roman genius and enterprise. Automobiles now traverse many of the roads which were laid out by engineers of the Empire, while in Rome itself the magnificent ruins of the ancient city are guarded as a priceless heritage of the past. Roman architecture has had a great influence down to our own day. Our handsome public buildings, courthouses, capitols, and public libraries are even more like Roman than like Greek buildings, for the Romans modified the Greek designs and introduced the oriental arch.

119. Importance of Latin. The language of the Romans—Latin—is still studied in our schools and colleges; from it are descended not only several modern languages, such as French and Spanish, but many of the English words we use every day. In the last sentence the words "language," "Roman," "Latin,"

"study," "school," "college," "descended," "use," and "Spanish" are clearly of Latin origin. Until modern times Latin was known by every educated person in Europe. It was the language of the Church and of the universities, and scholars wrote their learned works in Latin, even if they spoke French, German, or Spanish as their native tongue. Latin terms are still used in many branches of science, such as botany and zoölogy, and in law and medicine. The books of the greatest Latin authors are read today and are regarded as masterpieces of style.

120. Roman Law. The Romans have always enjoyed a reputation for practical wisdom, and many have regarded their contribution to the development of law as their greatest achievement. As the modern sculptor turns to the Greek artist as his model, so lawyers greatly esteem the decisions of the best Roman judges, and law students today are usually required to learn something of the great body of the Roman law.

The Roman system of numerals has survived to our own day and is often employed when a decorative effect is desired in the use of a number. Familiar examples are the numbering of chapters in books, volumes in a set of books, the hours on clock faces, and the engraving of dates on public buildings or monuments.

II. The Early Roman Republic

121. Invasion of the Indo-Europeans. We have seen how long it took the Greeks to reach the high civilization of the age of Pericles. It took even longer for their kindred in western Europe to learn to build fine buildings, found cities, perfect their language, develop their law and government, and attain their highest point in the early days of the Roman Empire. In order to appreciate the greatness of their achievement, let us follow them as they first make their appearance as wandering tribesmen in the Italian peninsula.

Very little is known about the earliest peoples who inhabited Italy; they could not write, so they have left no account of themselves. It seems probable, however, that about the same

time that Greek tribes were pushing into the Peloponnesus, various other Indo-European peoples were invading the peninsula we now call Italy. These Indo-Europeans drove out the people that they found living there, who must have been the descendants of the men of the Stone Age.

The newcomers in Italy found themselves little better off in some ways than they had been before, except that they could settle down in a warm, sunny climate; for their predecessors had been a simple folk without any of the arts, industries, and civilization which were known in the Ægean world not far away.

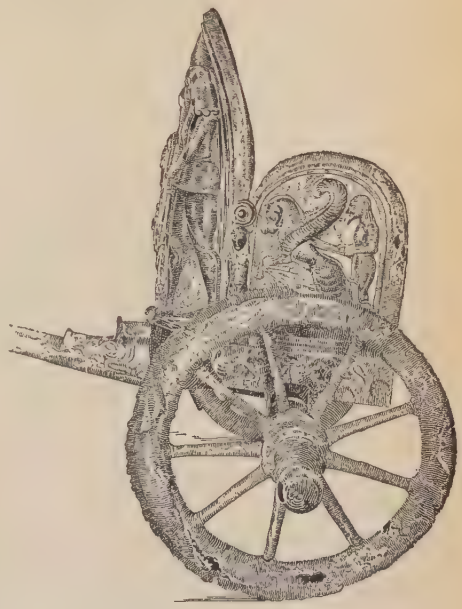
122. The Italic Tribes and their Neighbors. The most important of the Indo-European invaders were the Italic tribes which settled in the central and southern part of the peninsula. It was from them that Italy got its name. Besides the Italic invaders and their kindred, two other important peoples found a home in Italy. The first of these was a bold race of sea rovers whom we call the Etruscans. Their origin is uncertain, but it is believed they may have come from western Asia Minor. At any rate, they were far in advance of the primitive Italic tribes who were their neighbors. The Etruscans were settled on the west coast of Italy by 1000 B.C. They proved to be a powerful people, who finally gained control of the west coast from the Bay of Naples almost to Genoa and inland to the Apennines and the Po valley.

123. Greek Colonies bring Civilization to Italy. We can recall from our study of Greek history that during the eighth century so many little city-states were founded by Greek colonists on the southern shore of Italy that they called the region Great Greece (§ 71). It was these Greek colonists who first brought to Italy the refinements of the civilization of their homeland. We shall now follow the career of the barbarous Italic tribes of central Italy under the leadership of Rome and see how they were influenced first by the Etruscans and later by the Greeks.

124. The Beginnings of Rome. The beginnings and early history of Rome are very obscure, for the Italian peoples did not learn to write for a long time after they founded their town,

and we can only guess from the objects which have been dug up something of the humble origin of this great city. It seems about the year 1000 B.C. to have been a little trading post on the river Tiber, where the peasants of the surrounding country exchanged their grain and oxen for the tools and weapons made by the Etruscans.

The Latin tribes, to which the Romans belonged, were in constant terror of their powerful neighbors the Etruscans, who lived just across the river, and watched with anxiety the growth of the Etruscan towns as they spread across Italy. Their fears were well founded, for about 750 B.C. one of the Etruscan princes crossed the Tiber and took possession of Rome and its stronghold on the Palatine Hill. From this fortress the Etruscans extended their power over the surrounding plain, which was called Latium.



ETRUSCAN CHARIOT OF BRONZE

This magnificent chariot is the finest example that has been discovered of Etruscan skill in bronze. It was found in an Etruscan tomb and is now in the possession of the Metropolitan Museum of New York. It probably dates from the sixth century B.C.

They improved the city, for they had long traded with the Greeks and were familiar with their art and industries. They introduced pottery, metal work, and architecture. But the cruelty of the Etruscan rulers finally caused their Latin subjects to revolt against them and drive them out of the city.

125. Greek Influence in Early Rome. The Latins were also directly influenced by the Greeks of southern Italy, whose ships were now often seen on the Tiber. The Roman traders adopted the Greek letters and made a Roman alphabet to suit their own language. In this way the oriental alphabet was carried one step farther on its long westward journey until it became the alphabet (with some changes) with which this book is

THE TIBER AND ITS ISLAND AT ROME

The Tiber is not a large river, but when swollen by the spring freshets it still sometimes floods a large portion of Rome, doing serious damage. The houses which we see on the island are some of them old, but not as old as the ancient Rome we are to study. The bridges, however, are very old. The one on the right of the island was built of massive stone masonry by L. Fabricius in 62 B.C. It has been standing for over two thousand years. Many great Romans, like Julius Cæsar, whose names are familiar to us, must have crossed this bridge often

printed. The Romans learned from the Greeks how to make ships, and began to build up a business of their own. They also came to use coins as the Greeks did, instead of trading with grain or cattle as they had formerly done.

126. Rome becomes a Republic. When the Etruscan kings were driven out of Rome (about 500 B.C.) the government fell into the hands of the nobles, as had been the case in the Greek states after the disappearance of their kings (§ 74). The nobles, called *patricians*, arranged that two of their number should be

elected each year as heads of the State. These two magistrates, called *consuls*, were to have equal power and serve for one year. This new state was a *republic*, for the people had a voice in electing its consuls, or, as we might say, its presidents.

But since only patricians could serve as consuls the common people were dissatisfied. As the government of the nobles became oppressive the common people (called *plebs*; compare our "plebeian") revolted and left the city. The nobles realized that they needed the help of the plebs as soldiers in their frequent wars and agreed to give them a larger share in the government. They allowed them to elect certain officers of their own, *tribunes*, who had the power to veto any measure of the government and who were to protect the rights of the people.

The history of Rome for the next hundred and fifty years is the struggle between the patricians and plebeians for power. In the end the common people were victorious, for by a series of laws they finally won the right to hold any of the offices in the government, including even those of senator and consul.

127. Importance of the Roman Senate. The Senate, at first a council of patricians only, greatly influenced the consuls and carried on the important business of the State. As Rome extended her boundaries the largest part of her citizens were too far away to come to the city to vote. They were willing that important questions should be settled by the Senate, which was composed largely of ex-consuls and experienced statesmen. The Roman Senate became the most famous council of rulers that grew up in the ancient world.

QUESTIONS

I. What do we owe to the Romans?

II. How did Rome originate? Do you know the story of Romulus and Remus? What effects did the Etruscans have on Rome? What did the early Romans owe to the Greek colonies in Italy? What is a republic, and whence is the name derived (§ 175)? Describe the origin of the Roman Republic.

CHAPTER IX

THE EXPANSION OF ROME

I. The Conquest of Italy

128. Rome gains Central Italy (500–275 B.C.). It was a tiny nation which began its career after the expulsion of the Etruscan kings. The territory of the Roman Republic at that time comprised only the city and a few miles around. Fortunately for the Romans, within a generation the power of their most dangerous neighbor, the Etruscans, was destroyed. The Greek fleet of Syracuse demolished the Etruscan fleet (474 B.C.), and the Gauls, a barbarous people from the North, poured over the Alpine passes into the valley of the Po and overwhelmed them. The weakening of the Etruscans allowed Rome by 400 B.C. to take possession of new territory on all sides. From these annexed districts Rome was able to draw an army of brave and hardy soldiers, and it was with their assistance that she succeeded in conquering all Italy. Even the Greek cities in the south were unable to hold out against her, and one by one surrendered to the Roman army.

129. Influence of the Greeks on the Romans. The conquest of the Greek towns brought the Romans into close contact with a civilization far higher than their own. They greatly admired the genius and artistic ability of the Greeks and learned a great many things from them. They were also influenced by the flourishing business of these Greek colonies and soon (by 268 B.C.) began to make silver coins of their own similar to those used by the Greeks. A class of business men developed at Rome, and the trade of the city grew as never before. With the expansion of her power throughout Italy, Rome became a great center for business and shipping.

But whenever the Roman merchant ships issued from the Tiber, they found the western Mediterranean already controlled by a powerful rival. This was the ancient city of Carthage, just across the Mediterranean.

II. How Rome became Ruler of the Western Mediterranean

130. Commercial Supremacy of Carthage. We remember that the Phœnicians were the first to explore the western Mediterranean after 1000 B.C. (§ 66). On the African coast, opposite Sicily, they founded the city of Carthage, which soon became the leading business center in the western Mediterranean world. As the trade of Carthage increased she extended her control eastward and westward along the African coast, and her enterprising merchants even seized southern Spain with its valuable silver mines. The Carthaginians proposed to keep all the business they had built up, and so they closed the ports under their control to all foreign ships. Vessels belonging to other cities, on venturing into their harbors, were promptly rammed and sunk.

With increasing vexation the merchants of Italy saw that the development of their business was blocked by the Carthaginians. So the Romans determined to protect their interests and secure for themselves a share in the growing commerce of the western Mediterranean world. A deadly conflict between Rome and Carthage thus became inevitable. The Punic wars, as the struggle between these two great powers is called (from the Latin *Punicus*, meaning "Phœnician"), lasted with some interruptions for over a century and ended at last with the complete annihilation of the ancient African city.

131. Resources of Rome and Carthage. At the opening of the Punic wars Carthage was a splendid city, far larger and more impressive than Rome. The Carthaginians had to rely on hired soldiers, for there seems not to have been a large class of farmers from whom they could recruit an army of their own people, as Rome could. The Romans could put a force of six hundred thou-

sand citizens and allies in the field,—a tremendous army for those days. Moreover, the Roman "legions," as the divisions of the army were called, were carefully organized and highly disciplined. On the other hand, the Romans had had no experience on the sea, and without sea power they could make little headway against their enemy across the Mediterranean.

132. The First Punic War (264–241 B.C.). The immediate cause of the outbreak of the war was the seizure of Messina by a Carthaginian garrison. This was a serious blow to the Romans, for Messina commanded the strait which separated Sicily from the mainland and which was the short passage for ships plying between the western coast of Italy and her Adriatic ports. The Romans now crossed the narrow strait, formed an alliance with Syracuse, and obtained possession of the eastern part of Sicily. Five years elapsed, however, before the Romans were able to get their first fleet ready. They had much ill luck, for many of their ships were lost in storms or destroyed by the enemy. Finally, in 242 B.C., when the treasury of Rome was empty, a last fleet was built by private subscriptions from patriotic Romans. This time the Carthaginian navy was broken up, and the Carthaginians were forced to make peace on Rome's terms. They were required to give up Sicily and the neighboring islands and pay within ten years a huge indemnity. About a quarter of a century passed before war between the two great powers broke out again. During the interval both of them devoted themselves to increasing their strength.

133. The Second Punic War (218–201 B.C.). One of the young Carthaginian generals in Spain, Hannibal, determined on the bold plan of leading an army around through southern Gaul, crossing the Alps, and attacking Italy from the north. This difficult and dangerous journey over snow-covered mountain passes would have been utterly impossible had it not been for the genius and dauntless courage of the young Hannibal. After a desperate struggle the little Carthaginian army reached the upper valley of the Po, greatly reduced in numbers. In spite of this, Hannibal within ten years after his arrival in Italy de-

feated his mighty antagonist several times, although he was unable for lack of troops and siege apparatus to attack the city of Rome itself. A few years later, southern Italy forsook Rome and joined Hannibal. In spite of his success, the fine leadership of the Senate was able to hold central Italy loyal, and with dogged resolution the Romans besieged and recaptured one by one the allied cities that had deserted to Hannibal.

134. Defeat of Ḥannibal by Scipio (202 B.C.). For a time Hannibal struggled on in southern Italy. Meanwhile, taught by the defeat of the consuls, the Romans had given the command of their forces in Spain to Scipio, one of the ablest of their young leaders and a trained soldier. Having driven the Carthaginians out of Spain, thus cutting off Hannibal's supply of money and ships, Scipio went to Africa, where he twice defeated the Carthaginian army. Carthage was at last forced to call Hannibal home. After fifteen years in Italy the struggle was to be decided in Africa. At Zama, inland from Carthage, the army of Scipio met Hannibal and overwhelmed him.

Rome was now the leading power in the whole Mediterranean world. In the treaty which followed the battle of Zama the Carthaginians were forced to pay the Romans a crushing indemnity, to give up all but ten of their warships, and to obtain the permission of Rome before making war with any power. Hannibal escaped and later went into exile in the East, where we shall find him stirring up the successors of Alexander to combine against Rome (§ 136).

135. The Destruction of Carthage in the Third Punic War (146 B.C.). For fifty years more the merchants of Carthage were permitted to traffic in the western Mediterranean, and then the ruthless hand of Rome was laid upon the doomed city for the last time. On a slight excuse Rome attacked her old enemy and, in the three years' war that followed, utterly destroyed the beautiful city of Carthage. Her land was taken by Rome and organized into the Province of Africa. Thus ended the war against her only rival in the West. We shall now see how Rome dealt with her rivals in the East.

III. Rome conquers the Eastern Mediterranean

136. Alexander's Successors conquered by Rome (200–168 B.C.). While Rome had been making her conquests in the western Mediterranean, the successors of Alexander the Great had been contending among themselves for the possession of the various parts of his great empire. It had occurred to Hannibal while fighting in Italy to make an alliance with the king of Macedonia against Rome. The Romans consequently after their victory over Hannibal sent an expedition to Macedonia and defeated its army at Cynoscephalæ in 197 B.C., thus making this country a dependency of Rome. The Greek cities which had been taken by Philip and Alexander the Great (§§ 103–105) were now granted their freedom, but Rome kept a strict eye on them.

The war with Macedonia brought the Romans into conflict with Antiochus the Great, who as a successor of Seleucus (§ 110) held the Asiatic portion of Alexander's empire. For Antiochus began to seize portions of the Macedonian realms which the Romans declared independent. A war with this powerful Asiatic empire was a matter of grave concern, especially as Hannibal was now with Antiochus, giving him the benefit of his long experience. At Magnesia (190 B.C.), however, the Romans met the Asiatic forces and defeated them, and the lands of western Asia Minor submitted to Roman control. Two of the great divisions of Alexander's empire—the European and the western Asiatic—had within twelve years fallen to Rome. There remained Egypt, and before long it too became a dependency of the great city (168 B.C.). After a few years the Greek cities shared the same fate and became vassals of Rome.

QUESTIONS

I. How did Rome conquer Italy?

II. Why were Rome and Carthage rivals? Describe the First Punic War. What was Hannibal's plan for conquering Rome? Why did he fail?

III. Recall the partition of Alexander's empire after his death. What portions of Alexander's empire were conquered by the Romans?

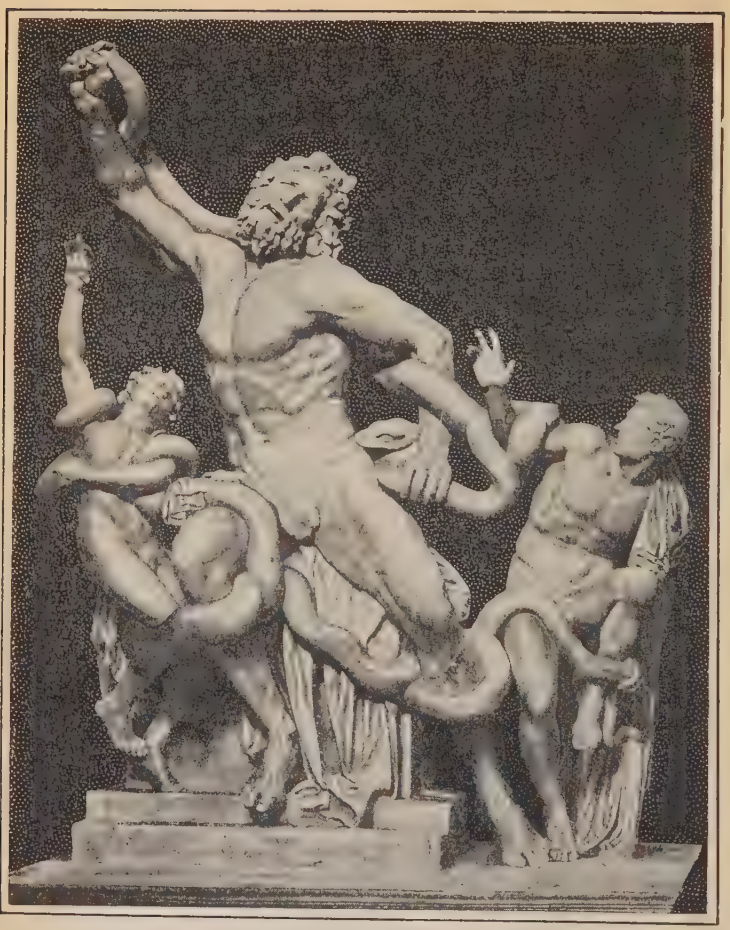
CHAPTER X

PROBLEMS OF WORLD DOMINION

I. How Rome was Revolutionized by her Conquests

137. Misrule of the Provinces. For centuries Rome had been devoting her energies to the conquest of her neighbors, and she had now gained the supremacy of the civilized world. Most of the newly acquired lands were organized as provinces, each under the control of a Roman governor with unlimited powers. The people of a province were not permitted to have an army, but were obliged to pay whatever taxes the governor demanded of them for the expense of his government and troops. The regulations of the province were made by the Senate and were usually not oppressive, but there were no provisions for compelling the governors to follow them. Too often the governors were eager to make a fortune in their short term of office, and their rule became a system of graft. The provinces were soon filled with Roman business men whom we should call "loan-sharks." There were also contractors called *publicans*, who were allowed to collect the taxes for the State at a great profit to themselves. All these grafters plundered the provinces more unscrupulously than the greedy governors themselves.

138. New Houses. As these people returned to Italy there grew up a wealthy class such as had been unknown before. The wealthier Romans became dissatisfied with their old-fashioned houses of sun-dried brick with but one room and began to replace them with beautiful homes modeled on those of the Greeks in southern Italy. They added a court with adjoining dining rooms, bedrooms, library, rest room, and kitchen. The original central court, or *atrium*, was, in the finer houses, converted into a reception hall, where statues, paintings, and other works of art



LAOCOÖN

This famous statue was rediscovered in 1506 near the baths of Titus, Rome. It is an example of later Greek art and probably one of the statues the Romans brought from Greece to adorn their buildings

as captives of war and sold to the landholders. The life of these unhappy prisoners was little better than that of beasts. When the supply of war captives failed, slave pirates for many years carried on wholesale kidnaping in the Ægean and eastern Mediterranean. Italy and Sicily were flooded with slaves. The brutal treatment which they received was so unbearable that at various places they finally revolted. In Sicily they gathered, sixty thousand in number, and slew their masters. It took several years to subdue them.

142. Corruption of the Government. The evil effects of the new wealth were also evident in the government at Rome. The Roman politicians now sought office chiefly with the hope of some day gaining the governorship of a province and making themselves rich for life. The aspirants to office tried to win favor by bribery and by providing free grain and entertainment to the voters. They arranged chariot races at the great race courses, called *circuses*, and gladiatorial contests (so called from the Latin *gladius*, meaning "sword"). These were mortal combats between swordsmen who were captive slaves or criminals and were compelled to fight, and later between men and wild beasts.

The Senate was no longer composed of wise and able statesmen, but was filled with selfish aristocrats eager to increase their own fortunes and heedless of the ruin which had overtaken the republic at home and abroad.

II. The Struggle between Senate and People: Rise of One-Man Power

143. The Gracchi and their Attempted Reforms (133–121 B.C.). The crying needs of the farmer class in Italy failed to produce any effect on the blinded and selfish politicians who made up the Roman Senate. Finally, the people found a leader in Tiberius Gracchus, the grandson of Scipio the hero of Zama, and elected him tribune in 133 B.C. He was wont with passionate eloquence to remind the people of their wrongs. "You fight and die to give wealth and luxury to others. You are called the masters of the

world, yet there is no clod of earth that you can really call your own." Tiberius Gracchus brought a law before the Assembly providing for the protection of the farming class and a redistribution of the public lands, which were being seized by the rich. But the Senate regarded him as a dangerous agitator, and he was slain by a mob of senators who rushed from their meeting-place and attacked him and his supporters.

Ten years later Gaius, the brother of Tiberius Gracchus, undertook to force through similar reforms in behalf of the farmers and to reduce the power of the Senate. He too was killed in a riot. In spite of their failure these two brothers won enduring fame in their efforts to improve the lot of the people at large.

144. Beginning of One-Man Power. The Gracchi had taught the people that it was necessary to have a leader in order to secure their rights, and this was the beginning of the one-man power that resulted eventually in the overthrow of the Republic and the establishment of the Roman Empire under a single ruler. We cannot review here the history of the last century of the Republic. It is a story of the bloodiest civil wars between the leaders of the Senate and of the people, with their armies behind them, with first one side and then the other in control of the government.

145. Julius Cæsar (100–44 B.C.). The first leader we need to mention was a popular hero, Julius Cæsar, an opponent of the senatorial party, who was elected consul in 59 B.C. The next year he was appointed governor of Gaul, and during the following eight years proved himself to be a commander of distinguished ability. He conquered the territory of the Gauls from the Rhine to the ocean and even crossed the Channel and invaded Britain. He thus added a vast dominion to the Roman realms, comprising in general what is now France and Belgium.

Cæsar aspired to be the permanent head of the State and steadily pursued his aim. One of his cleverest moves was the publication of a history of his campaigns in Gaul, which he found time to write in the midst of his expedition. This was intended to tell the people of the vast conquests they owed to

their governor in Gaul. Strangely enough this political pamphlet is the best-known Latin book today, for it is used more than any other work as a reading-book in the study of Latin.

146. Cæsar becomes Head of the Republic. The senators dreaded the return of Cæsar and induced Pompey, a victorious general and former associate of Cæsar, to oppose him and support the senatorial party. Cæsar disregarded the command of the Senate to disband his army. Instead, he marched on Rome, taking the city by surprise, so that Pompey and his group fled to Greece. After being elected consul he pursued Pompey and inflicted a crushing defeat on his army at Pharsalus. By March, 45 B.C., Cæsar had become the head of the whole Roman world. This was the first time that the Republic was under the command of one man. Cæsar made his power seem legal by having himself made Dictator for life.

147. Cæsar's Plans for the State. Cæsar intended to make thoroughgoing reforms in the corrupt administration of the government. He sketched plans for the rebuilding of Rome, and laid out new roads to make travel easier throughout the realm. He introduced the Egyptian calendar in place of the old-fashioned one based on the moon month. Our month of July (from the Latin *Julius*) is named after him. It was Cæsar who really established the Roman Empire and became its first emperor in fact, if not in name.

148. Murder of Cæsar (44 B. C.). But there were still men in Rome who were not ready to submit to the rule of one man, and Cæsar's desire to be regarded as of divine origin, like oriental rulers, particularly exasperated them. On March 15, just before he was to depart on a campaign in the East, he was murdered in the Senate chamber. But his murderers little understood how vain were such efforts to restore the ancient Republic. World dominion and military power had destroyed forever the old democratic government. Rome was henceforth to be directed by an emperor.

149. How Octavian (Cæsar Augustus) made himself Head of Rome. Julius had adopted his grandnephew Octavian and

had made him his sole heir. At the time of Cæsar's assassination Octavian was only eighteen years old. He immediately started for Rome, and in spite of his youth and inexperience managed to find supporters and secure a military command, so that two years later he was able to defeat his enemies, including Cæsar's assassins, in the battle of Philippi (42 B.C.). During the following ten years he made his position stronger and stronger, and at the age of twenty-eight he had gained almost complete control over both the eastern and western portions of the Roman realms.

150. Octavian, Mark Antony, and Cleopatra. Octavian's last struggle was with his former friend and supporter, Mark Antony, who had become infatuated with the charming Egyptian queen, Cleopatra. It was reported to Octavian that Antony and Cleopatra were planning to make themselves rulers of Rome. With the approval of the Senate, Octavian advanced against Antony and defeated him at Actium (31 B.C.), on the west coast of Greece.

The next year Octavian landed in Egypt, which had long been under Roman influence (§ 136). Antony, probably forsaken by Cleopatra, took his own life. The proud queen, unwilling to be displayed at Octavian's triumph at Rome, died by her own hand. She was the last of the Ptolemies (§ 110), the rulers of Egypt for nearly three hundred years. Octavian now made Egypt Roman territory (30 B.C.). To the West, which he already controlled, Octavian had now added the East. The entire Mediterranean world was under the power of a single ruler.

QUESTIONS

I. What problems did the Roman conquests raise? What effects had the conquests on the lives of the rich Romans? What was the condition of the farmers? Tell something of the slave class.

II. What were the aims of the Gracchus brothers? How did Julius Cæsar prepare the way for his dictatorship? How did Cæsar complete the conquest of the Mediterranean world? What were his proposed reforms?

CHAPTER XI

THE ROMAN EMPIRE AT ITS HEIGHT

I. The Age of Augustus; his Successors

151. How the Republic became an Empire. Augustus, the First Emperor (30 B.C.–A.D. 14). When Octavian returned to Italy there was a general impression that peace had at last come after a hundred years of revolution, civil war, and devastation. The great majority of Romans now felt that one supreme ruler was necessary for the control of the vast Roman dominions. Therefore there was no further opposition to Octavian, and he devoted the remaining forty-four years of his life to giving the Roman Empire the efficient organization and good government which it had so long lacked.

The Senate conferred upon Octavian the title of *Augustus* ("the august"); but his chief official title was *Princeps* ("the first"), meaning the first of the citizens. Another title, *Imperator*, was an old word for commander or general; from which our word "emperor" is derived. Augustus regarded his position as that of an official elected by the Senate and the people.

Although the Roman Empire was under the government of both the Senate and the Emperor, the Emperor was the real ruler, because as general he had the legions at his command.

152. The Army and the Frontiers. Augustus seems to have thought that the Roman Empire was quite large enough, and he did not advocate any further conquests. It was bounded on the south by the Sahara Desert and on the west by the Atlantic. The Euphrates River was established as the frontier on the east, and the Danube and Rhine on the north.

For the defense of these frontiers it was necessary to maintain a large standing army—on the average, probably two hundred

and twenty-five thousand men. The troops were recruited chiefly from the Roman provinces. Henceforth the legions were posted far out on the boundaries, and the citizens in Italy saw few troops except the Emperor's bodyguard.

153. Great Task of organizing the Empire. For many years the provinces had been mismanaged and plundered. Augustus now set himself the task of providing a better government for them. The new governors were made responsible to the Emperor for the faithful performance of their duties and knew that if they proved successful they would be permitted to retain their posts for years. Moreover, Augustus now regulated the taxes throughout the Empire and turned back much of the money to the provinces to be used for necessary improvements, like roads, bridges and aqueducts, and public buildings. The establishment of an honest and stable government produced great changes in the Empire, especially in business. The whole Mediterranean world now entered upon a period of peace and prosperity.

154. Death of Augustus; his Successors. Augustus died A.D. 14. There was no law providing for the line of succession in the Empire. As Augustus had no male heir, he had asked the Senate to associate with him in the government his stepson Tiberius, an able soldier, who succeeded him. The chief thing to be noted in the reign of Tiberius is that he no longer allowed the Roman populace to go through the farce of approving what the Emperor had already decided upon; so even the pretense of government by the Roman *people* disappeared forever.

We can mention only a few of the Roman emperors who succeeded Tiberius. Some of them were good and efficient, while others, like Nero, were noted for their wickedness.

155. Protection of the Empire. Vespasian, an able general, became Emperor in the year 69 of the Christian Era.[1] With

[1] We date events as occurring before or after the birth of Christ. Those which happened before Christ was born are calculated backwards. For instance, we say that the battle of Marathon was fought in 490 B.C., which means four hundred and ninety years before Christ. Events which have occurred during the Christian Era—that is, since the birth of Christ—are indicated by A.D. (*Anno Domini*), meaning "in the year of our Lord."

THE ROMAN FORUM AND ITS PUBLIC BUILDINGS IN THE EARLY EMPIRE
(AFTER LUCKENBACH)

We look across the ancient market place (*F*) to the Tiber with its ships. On each side of the market place, where we see the buildings (*E*, *J*, and *D*, *G*, *I*), were once rows of little wooden booths for the selling of meat, fish, and other merchandise. During the period which followed the beginning of the Carthaginian wars these were gradually displaced by fine buildings, like the basilica hall (*D*), built not long after 200 B.C.

RUINS OF THE FORUM AS THEY APPEAR TODAY
(Photograph used by permission of Alinari Brothers, Florence)

him began a century of general peace, under honest and able rulers who brought the Empire to its highest point of prosperity and general content.

The north and east of the Empire were constantly in danger of attack from the German barbarians, who had from time to time made inroads into its provinces. Vespasian and his successors built walls and fortifications along the frontier to make these boundaries safe. On the lower Danube the emperor Trajan (A.D. 98–117) captured the stronghold of the Dacians (see Map 5), built a massive bridge across the Danube, and made Dacia a Roman province. The descendants of these colonists still call their land *Rumania*, derived from the word "Roman."

Trajan's successor, Hadrian (A.D. 117–138), also an able soldier, strengthened the whole northern frontier by massive walls, especially the long stretch between the Rhine and the Danube and the northern boundary of Britain. The lines of both these walls may still be seen.

156. Rise of a System of Law for the Whole Empire. Not only did the subjects of this vast State pay their taxes into the same treasury, but they were controlled by the same laws. The lawyers of Rome were the most gifted legal minds the world had ever seen. They altered the narrow *city*-law of Rome so that it might meet the needs of the whole Empire. In spirit these laws were fair, just, and humane, and did much to unify the peoples of the Mediterranean world into a single nation; for the various peoples were now regarded by the law not as different nations but as subjects of the same great State, which extended to them all the same protection of justice, law, and order.

157. Marcus Aurelius (A.D. 161–180). The efforts of Trajan and Hadrian could not permanently protect the Empire against the pressure of the barbarians. Marcus Aurelius had therefore to face a very serious situation. The barbarian hordes from the north broke through the frontier defenses and poured into Italy. Marcus Aurelius was unable to expel them entirely from the Empire, and finally permitted some of them to settle within

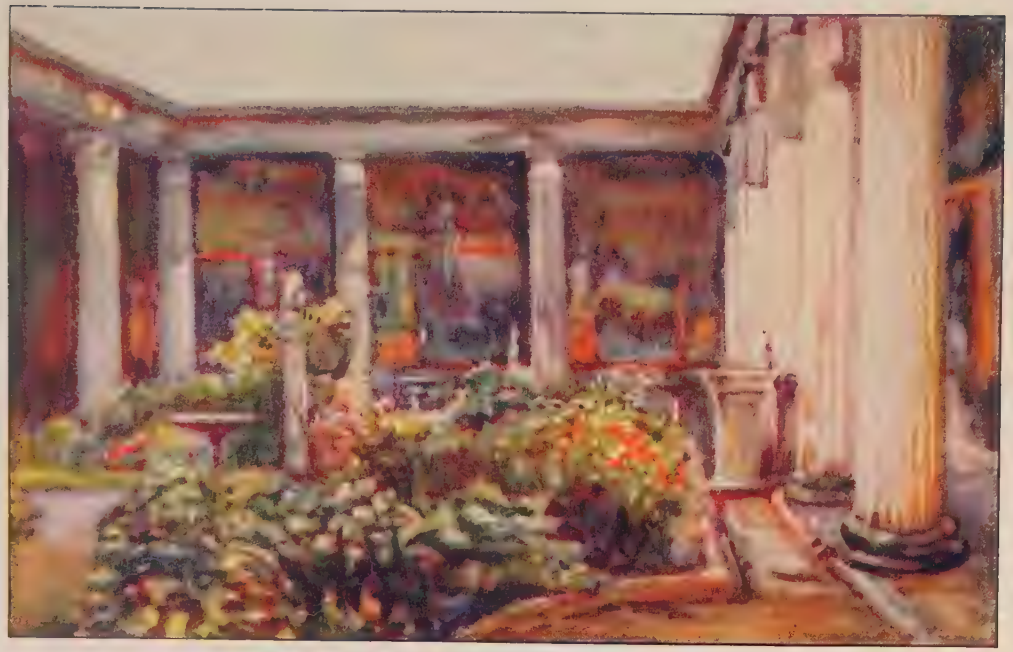
its limits, on condition that they should help defend it from their fellow Germans. This policy had very serious consequences, as we shall see later.

Marcus Aurelius was a Stoic (§ 116) and found time during his campaigns to write a little book in Greek called *Meditations*, which we may still read with pleasure and profit. But no ruler, however wise, could stop the decline going on in the great Roman world. There now followed a fearful century of revolution from which a very different empire emerged. But before we proceed with this story let us look at the civilization which crowned the Empire at its height.

II. Civilization of the Empire

158. Magnificent Buildings. Augustus had undertaken to rebuild Rome and make it the leading art center in the world. He boasted that he had found Rome a city of brick and left it a city of marble. His handsome residence on the Palatine Hill (from which our word "palace" is derived) looked down upon an imposing array of buildings which were due to his enterprise. In the new architecture Greek and oriental influences were combined, and the Greek colonnade and oriental arch were the chief features. It is from these buildings that we have taken the models for many of our own.

By the time of Trajan and Hadrian, Rome far surpassed Alexandria in splendor and was the most magnificent city in the world. Its forums, temples, and theaters had been added by a succession of emperors. Vespasian had erected for gladiatorial combats a vast amphitheater—the Colosseum—seating forty-five thousand spectators. The buildings of Trajan and Hadrian represent the highest level of perfection reached by Roman architects. The domed roof of Hadrian's Pantheon is a solid mass of concrete over a hundred and forty feet across. The Romans, therefore, eighteen hundred years ago were using concrete on a scale which we have only recently learned to equal. The Pantheon is still in excellent condition.



PERISTYLE OF THE HOUSE OF THE VETTII IN POMPEII, RESTORED

159. Excellent Roman Roads. Everywhere the magnificent Roman roads, smoothly paved with blocks of stone like town streets, led straight over the hills and across the rivers by imposing bridges. Some of the bridges still stand and are in use today. The speed of travel and communication was fully as high as that maintained in Europe and America a century ago, before the introduction of the steam railway, and the roads were much better. By sea a Roman merchant could send a letter to his agent in Alexandria in ten days. The huge government grain ships that plied regularly between the Roman harbors and Alexandria were stately vessels carrying several thousand tons. With these improvements in transportation business flourished as never before.

160. Pompeii. One of the provincial cities has been preserved to us with much that we might have seen there if we could have visited it nearly two thousand years ago. In the year 79 of the Christian Era an eruption of Mt. Vesuvius suddenly overwhelmed the little city of Pompeii and covered it with ashes. Recent excavations show us the very streets and houses, the forum and the public buildings, the shops and the markets, and a host of other things illustrating the life of the people of this town as it was in the days when they were suddenly buried beneath the ashes of the volcano.

161. Books and Writers of Augustus's Time. It was during the life of Augustus that the writing of Latin reached its highest perfection. The Romans did little in science, and their art was an imitation of Greek models. As writers they were also dominated by the Greeks, and literary men often studied in Athens and spoke Greek among themselves when they returned to Italy. In the age before Augustus, Cicero, a lawyer, statesman, and remarkable orator, had done much to perfect the Latin tongue in his speeches and orations. Late in life he was forced to retire from active work, and spent several years writing out, in Latin, treatises on duty, friendship, old age, and the gods, which have been read with pleasure ever since. While they owed much to Greek works, they are so beautifully and elegantly expressed

that they came to be regarded as models of Latin prose and are still read in our schools and colleges where Latin is studied. Livy wrote his great history of Rome, from which we get a large part of our information in regard to the development of the Roman State down to his time.

Latin poetry reached its height a generation later than Cicero, after Augustus had established peace and begun to encourage men of letters to make his reign famous by their works. Horace was proud of having been able to introduce the various Greek rhythms into Latin. He wrote gay, and sometimes sad, little poems about human joys and loves and ambitions, which are still quoted by those fond of Latin. Virgil, the most beloved of Latin writers through the ages, described country life in his earlier poems and then wrote his immortal Æneid,—a sort of continuation of the Iliad,—in which he described the fall of Troy and the coming to Italy of Æneas, whom he represented as the ancestor of the Cæsars.

162. Decline of Literature. After the age of Augustus, literature tended to decline in spite of the opportunity of intercourse with the Greeks, the splendid libraries maintained by the State, and the assistance given to authors by the government. Writers were content to imitate the great works of the past. There were a few prose writers of ability. Nero's able minister, Seneca, wrote essays and letters in an admirable style.

Plutarch wrote in Greek his remarkable *Lives of Famous Men*, which has charmed and inspired readers ever since. Tacitus prepared histories of recent events, which are celebrated for their compact style and penetrating estimates of the leading men of the time. This is the last important Roman history that we have, and little is known of the following period.

163. Science: the Ptolemaic System. The Romans showed little curiosity about the natural causes of things and made no advance in science; they were content with learning what others had found out. Pliny the Elder, however, devoted himself to scientific studies. He collected all sorts of information from Greek writers in an encyclopedia called *Natural History*. Al-

though he mixes with his facts many stories of imaginary animals and men and of the magical properties of gems and plants, people were so ignorant of science that Pliny's book was regarded during the Middle Ages as a great authority.

The last scientist of distinction that arose in Alexandria was Claudius Ptolemæus, commonly called Ptolemy, who lived about the time of Hadrian. He wrote on geography and astronomy and summed up the previous discoveries of the Greeks so well that until a few hundred years ago his books were regarded as the last word on the subjects. He held that the sun revolved around the earth, and his explanation of the movements of the planets is known as the Ptolemaic system. It was not until the sixteenth century that, with the appearance of Copernicus (§ 388), men began to suspect that Ptolemy was wholly mistaken about the universe.

164. Oriental Religions in Europe. Many thoughtful Romans read the Greek philosophy of the Stoics and Epicureans (§ 116), but their teaching appealed only to the intellectual class.

Multitudes, including even the educated, yielded to the fascination of the mysterious religions coming in from the East. Many shrines, or even large temples of the Egyptian Isis, were to be found in all the larger cities. Today tiny statuettes and other symbols of the Egyptian goddess are found even along the Seine, the Rhine, and the Danube. In the army the Persian Mithras, the Sun-god of light (§ 52), was a great favorite.

The Jews also, since their temple in Jerusalem had been destroyed by the Romans, were to be found in increasing numbers in the cities. The Roman world was becoming accustomed to their synagogues; but the Jews refused to acknowledge any god besides their own, and this brought them into disfavor and trouble with the government.

165. Rise of Christianity. Among all these faiths of the Orient the common people were more and more inclining toward that of the Christian missionaries, who told how their Master, Jesus, a Jew, born in Palestine, in the days of Augustus, had preached for a few years his faith of human brotherhood and of divine

fatherhood, till he incurred the hatred of his countrymen, and in the reign of Tiberius he had been put to death.

A Jewish tentmaker, Paul of Tarsus, became the leading Christian missionary. He preached the new gospel in Asia Minor, Athens, and finally in Rome itself, and Christian churches began to spring up. Some of Paul's letters to the churches he founded were widely circulated. There were also four accounts in Greek of the life and teachings of Jesus that came to be regarded as authoritative. These were the four *Gospels*, which, with Paul's letters and some other early Christian writings, were brought together to form the New Testament. As time passed, increasing numbers learned of the teachings of Jesus and found joy in the hopes they awakened.

166. Roman Persecution of the Early Christians. These early Christians, like the Jews, not only refused to sacrifice to the Emperor as a god, as all good Roman citizens were expected to do, but openly prophesied the downfall of the Roman State. Their religion, therefore, seemed to interfere with good citizenship, since it forbade them to show the usual respect for the Emperor and the government. While the Roman government was usually very tolerant in matters of religion, the Christians were looked upon as political enemies and were frequently called upon to endure cruel persecution.

QUESTIONS

I. What was the meaning of the various titles of Augustus? What is meant by the substitution of the Roman Empire for the Republic? What were the bounds of the Empire in the time of Augustus? Mention some of the successors of Augustus. What means were taken for protecting the Empire from invasion? Tell something of Marcus Aurelius.

II. Mention some of the chief writers of the time of Augustus. What was the Ptolemaic system? Mention the chief oriental religions which prevailed in the Empire. Describe the rise of Christianity.

CHAPTER XII

THE DECLINE OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE

I. Weakness of the Empire

167. Many Causes for Decline. We have now studied the Roman Empire in its most flourishing period, the two centuries of relative peace that began with the reign of Augustus. We must now see how it declined in strength and was finally overrun by barbarian tribes from the North. We know very little of this period of decline, as our sources of information are scanty and unreliable. It is pretty clear, however, that there were a number of conditions that contributed to the weakening of the Empire and to its final dissolution.

168. Varied Peoples of the Empire. In the first place, the Empire contained within its vast territory nearly a hundred million people of widely different races: Italians, Greeks, Gauls, Iberians (Spaniards), Britons, Germans, North Africans, Egyptians, Arabs, Jews, Phœnicians, Syrians, Armenians, and Hittites, to mention the more important. These people differed greatly from one another in language, customs, and ideas. They had in common only the Emperor and his government; but the Emperor was a long way off from most of them, and, moreover, he was not a leader whom they had chosen for themselves.

169. No Law for choosing the Emperor. One very serious defect in the organization of the government was that there had never been a legal method established for choosing a new emperor. The various divisions of the army discovered that they had the power to set up an emperor and also to depose him if he displeased them. In this way crude and barbarous soldiers, few of whom were citizens, became the chief controlling power

in the State. There were often several of these "barrack" candidates for the throne fighting among themselves. When at last (A.D. 212) citizenship was granted to all free men within the Empire, the various provinces felt that they had as much right as Italy to determine who should be ruler. Here was a cause for infinite confusion and disorder.

170. Plight of the Country People. In spite of its seeming prosperity, the Empire had for a long time been filled with discontent. Wealth and luxury were enjoyed only by the few. As a modern writer says, "Rome was content to feast, exact, grow rich, and watch its gladiatorial shows." The decline in farming had gone on steadily, for the small farmers disappeared as the land continued to fall into the hands of the rich, whose vast estates were called *villas*. These villas now covered not only Italy but also Gaul, Britain, Spain, and other leading provinces. A discouraged farmer would often become the *colonus* of some rich villa owner. By this arrangement he and his descendants were assured the right to work the land, but were *bound* to it by law and passed with it from owner to owner when it changed hands. While not actually slaves, the *coloni* (plural of *colonus*) were not free to leave their farms. The great villas were now cultivated chiefly by the *coloni*, the forerunners of the medieval *serfs* (§ 266).

171. The City Idlers. Many of the country people, unwilling to become *coloni*, forsook their fields and turned to the city for relief. Great stretches of unworked and weed-grown fields were no uncommon sight. As there was less land cultivated, the amount of food decreased. The scarcity of food was felt most severely in the cities, where prices rapidly went up. The destruction of the small farms was perhaps the chief cause among many that brought about the decline of this great empire.

At the same time business in the cities fell off, and manufacturers had to discharge their workmen, who swelled the numbers of the unemployed. The cities became filled with poor people scrambling for a place in the waiting lines, to which the government distributed free grain, wine, and meat.

INTERIOR OF THE MOSQUE OF ST. SOPHIA

ARCH OF EMPEROR TITUS (A.D. 79–81) IN ROME AND THE ARCH IN WASHINGTON SQUARE, NEW YORK

172. Crushing Weight of Taxation. The money needed to keep up the luxurious court of the Emperor, to satisfy the demands of the army, and to supply the city idlers with food and amusements required a constant increase in taxes. It was customary to require a group of wealthy men to become responsible for the taxes of their district. When it was found that this discouraged men from developing their business, the State enacted laws forbidding men to give up their business and requiring sons to follow the trades and professions of their fathers, and even fixed wages and the prices of goods.

So the once free Roman citizen, whether rich or poor, in country or city, had almost no independent life of his own. He was watched by government officials and spies who saw to it that the grain dealers, butchers, and bakers supplied the public and never deserted their occupations. In a word, the Roman government attempted to regulate almost every interest of life, and wherever the citizen turned he felt the irksome interference and oppression of the State.

II. Constantine and the Triumph of Christianity

173. Disorder after Marcus Aurelius. After the death of Marcus Aurelius, in A.D. 180, there was now and then an emperor sufficiently strong to keep order for a while; but much of the time there was anarchy and fighting between rivals for the throne. During a period of ninety years there were no less than eighty fleeting emperors. Robbery and murder increased, and the German barbarians began to penetrate more boldly into the Empire. On the eastern border a new power had arisen—the Persian dynasty of the Sassanids, which took possession of the Fertile Crescent and became a dangerous rival of Rome.

174. Constantine (A.D. 324–337). When Constantine the Great managed to get control of the Empire in 324, he determined to establish a second capital—a new Rome on the eastern borders of the Empire to supplement the old original Rome on the Tiber. He selected for its site the ancient Greek town of Byzantium on

the Bosporus. Constantinople, as it was now named after its founder, stood just between Europe and Asia and was well situated to command them both. The Emperor stripped many an ancient town of its works of art to adorn his new capital, and before his death it had become a magnificent city, worthy to be the successor of Rome as the seat of the Empire.

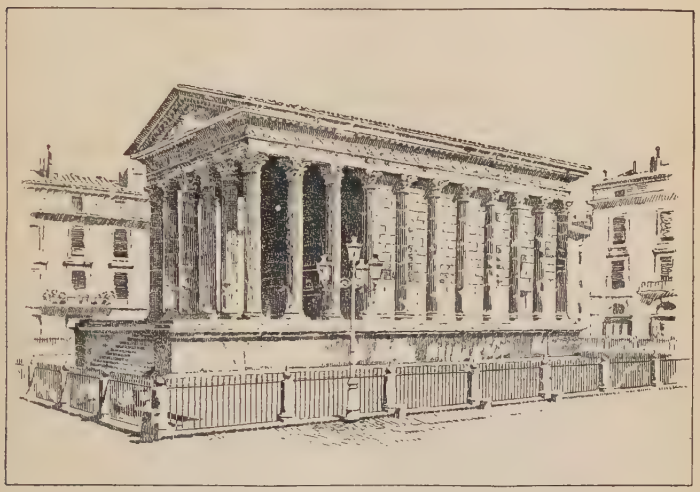
175. Division of the Empire. The founding of a second capital in the East tended to bring about a separation of the eastern and western portions of the Empire. When, after Constantine's time, there were two emperors, as there often were, one was likely to make his headquarters in Italy, the other at Constantinople. But the Empire was always regarded as one, and no decree was ever issued dividing it into two parts. The ancient *res publica*, or Roman commonwealth, was not given up in theory.

176. Christianity Legalized. Constantine was the first Christian emperor. The Roman government, as we have seen, had long persecuted the Christians from time to time; but shortly before Constantine became emperor a decree had been issued permitting Christians openly to confess their faith and maintain their churches. Christianity was now on the same footing as the old pagan religions.

In spite of the earlier persecutions the Christian churches were already numerous and well organized. Constantine and his Christian successors favored the Christians and began to abolish all other religions, and before long the Christians began to persecute those who refused to accept their doctrines.

177. Organization and Power of the Church. The Christian Church became more and more powerful and in time rivaled the State in its influence. The officers of the Church came to be looked upon as occupying a distinguished position and were called *clergy*, while the ordinary members of the Church were called the *laity*. Those in charge of the smaller, country congregations were called *presbyters*, the Latin form of a Greek word (meaning "elder") from which our word "priest" is derived. Over all the churches in each city a leading priest was appointed as *bishop*. In the larger cities *archbishops*, or head

bishops, were appointed, who had a certain measure of authority over the bishops in the surrounding cities of the province. Thus the Christian Church, which once found its adherents chiefly among the weak and the despised, became a powerful organization, and began to play a great part in public affairs.



ROMAN TEMPLE AT NÎMES, FRANCE

This beautiful temple was probably built about the beginning of the Christian Era. It was situated in the forum with other public buildings which have now disappeared. After the break-up of the Roman Empire it was used as a Christian church, then as a town hall, then as a warehouse, and finally as a stable. In 1824 it was restored to its original condition, as we now find it

QUESTIONS

I. What were the chief signs of decline in the Roman Empire? What was the position of the farming population? What caused the decline in business? Why did disorders occur in the election of emperors? Why were the taxes so heavy in the later Roman Empire? Why did liberty and free citizenship tend to disappear?

II. What were the chief measures of Constantine? How was Christianity legalized? Describe the Church at that time. Give a summary of ancient history.

BOOK II. CIVILIZATION OF THE MIDDLE AGES

CHAPTER XIII

THE PERIOD OF INVASIONS AND THE WORK OF THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH

I. Invasion of the Empire by Barbarians

178. The Menace of the Barbarians. We must now describe the way in which the western portions of the Roman Empire were invaded by barbarous peoples from the North, who broke up the old Roman government and established in its stead kingdoms under their own rulers. These Germans, or "barbarians," as the Romans called them, belonged to the same great group of people to which the Persians, Greeks, and Romans belonged—the Indo-European race (§ 49). They had not advanced much in civilization since the Late Stone Age and for hundreds of years had been a menace to the highly civilized countries to the south of them.

179. The German Peoples. The Germans were a fair-haired, blue-eyed race of men, tall and strong. Hardened to wind and weather in their raw Northern climate, their native fearlessness and love of war and plunder often led them to wander about, followed by their wives and families in heavy wagons.

The carefully disciplined Roman legions were now no more. Indeed, the lack of men for the army had long since made it seem necessary to the emperors to hire the Germans as soldiers. A more serious step was the admission of *entire* German peoples to live in the Empire, retaining all their old customs. The men

were then received into the Roman army and were commanded by their own German leaders.

180. The Huns force the Goths into the Empire. About the year 375 the Huns, a Mongolian folk from central Asia, swept down upon the Goths, a German tribe settled north of the Danube, and forced a part of them to seek shelter within the limits of the Empire. Here they soon fell out with the Roman officials, and a great battle was fought at Adrianople in 378, in which the Goths defeated and slew the Roman emperor Valens. The battle of Adrianople may be said to mark the beginning of the conquest of the Empire by the Germans. For some years after the battle of Adrianople, however, the various bands of West Goths—or *Visigoths*, as they are often called—were induced to keep to the terms of peace offered by the Emperor's officials.

181. Alaric takes Rome (410). Finally, Alaric, the leader of the West Goths, became dissatisfied with his position as a Roman general and decided to march on Rome. The Eternal City fell into his hands in 410 and was plundered by his followers. Although Alaric's troops did not even seriously damage the city, the fact that Rome had fallen into the hands of an invading army seemed a notable disaster.

182. West Goths settle in Southern Gaul and Spain: the Vandals. Alaric soon died, and the West Goths then wandered into Gaul and later into Spain, where they came upon the Vandals, another German tribe, whom they drove across the Strait of Gibraltar into northern Africa. Here the Vandals established a kingdom.

The West Goths now took possession of a great part of the Spanish peninsula, and, with their conquests across the Pyrenees in Gaul, their kingdom extended from the river Loire to the Strait of Gibraltar.

It is unnecessary to follow the confused history of the movements of the innumerable bands of restless barbarians who wandered about Europe during the fifth century. Scarcely any part of western Europe was left unmolested; even Britain was conquered by German tribes, the Angles and Saxons.

183. Disappearance of Emperors in the West (476). Most of the Roman emperors in the West had proved weak and indolent rulers; so the barbarians wandered hither and thither pretty much at their pleasure, and the German troops in the service of the Empire became accustomed to setting up and deposing emperors to suit their own special interest. Finally, in 476, Odoacer, the most powerful among the rival German generals in Italy, assumed the title of "patrician" and banished the last of the emperors of the West.

It was not, however, given to Odoacer to establish an enduring kingdom on Italian soil, for he was conquered by the great Theodoric (see map, p. 90), king of the East Goths (or *Ostrogoths*).

184. The Emperor Justinian. The year after Theodoric's death one of the greatest emperors of the East, Justinian (527–565), came to the throne at Constantinople. Justinian undertook to regain for his empire the provinces in Africa and Italy that had been occupied by the Vandals and East Goths. One of his generals overthrew the Vandal kingdom in northern Africa in 534, and so completely defeated the Goths in 553 that they agreed to leave Italy with all their movable possessions.

185. Code of Justinian. The name of Justinian has become famous on account of the great collection of Roman law which he had his lawyers prepare. It contained the edicts of the emperors then in force, and a vast mass of decisions of celebrated Roman judges, who furnished interpretations of all important points. This "Body of the Civil Law," as it is called, became the foundation of law for later ages, and still is carefully studied by law students, especially in Europe.

186. The Lombards occupy Italy. Immediately after the death of Justinian, Italy was overrun by the Lombards, the last of the great German peoples to establish themselves within the bounds of the former empire. The newcomers occupied the region north of the Po, which has ever since been called Lombardy after them, and then extended their conquest southward.

187. The Franks and their Conquests. In Justinian's time, Gaul, which we now call France, was coming under the control

MAP OF EUROPE IN THE TIME OF THEODORIC

It will be noticed that Theodoric's kingdom of the East Goths included not only Italy but regions to the north and east, and that the West Gothic kingdom extended into southern France. The Vandals held northern Africa and the adjacent islands. The Burgundians lay in between the East Goths and the Franks. The Lombards, who were later to move down into Italy, were in Theodoric's time east of the Bavarians, after whom modern Bavaria is named. Some of the Saxons invaded England, but many remained in Germany, as indicated on the map. The Eastern Empire, which was all that remained of the Roman Empire, included the Balkan Peninsula, Asia Minor, and the eastern portion of the Mediterranean. The Britons in Wales, the Picts in Scotland, and the Scots in Ireland were Celts; consequently modern Welsh, Gaelic, and Irish are closely related and all of them belong to the Celtic group of languages

THE DOMINIONS OF THE FRANKS UNDER THE MEROVINGIANS

This map shows how the Frankish kingdom grew up. Clovis, while still a young man, defeated the Roman general Syagrius in 486, near Soissons, and so added the region around Paris to his possessions. He added Alamannia on the east in 496. In 507 he made Paris his capital and conquered Aquitania, previously held by the West Goths. He also made a beginning in adding the kingdom of the Burgundians to his realms. He died in 511. His successors in the next half century completed the conquest of Burgundy and added Provincia, Bavaria, and Gascony. There were many divisions of the Frankish realms after the time of Clovis, and the eastern and western portions, called Austrasia and Neustria, were often ruled by different branches of the *Merovingians*, as Clovis's family was called from his ancestor *Merovæus*, the supposed founder of his line

of the most powerful of all the German barbarians, the *Franks* (see map, p. 91). The various kingdoms established by the German chieftains were not very permanent, as we have seen. The Franks, however, succeeded in founding an empire far more important than that of any other of the German peoples. In the early part of the fifth century they had occupied the district which forms today the kingdom of Belgium, as well as the regions east of it. In 486 they went forth under their great king Clovis (a name that later grew into Louis) and defeated the Roman general who opposed them. They extended their control over Gaul as far south as the Loire, which at that time formed the northern boundary of the kingdom of the West Goths.

Clovis succeeded in greatly enlarging his empire. In the midst of one of his battles (496), seeing his troops giving way, he called upon Jesus Christ and pledged himself to be baptized in his name if he would help the Franks to victory over their enemies. When he won the battle he kept his word and was baptized, together with three thousand of his warriors.

Clovis died in 511 at Paris, which he had made his residence. His successors, in spite of constant wars between rival sons, succeeded in extending the power of the Frankish rulers over pretty much all the territory that is included today in France, Belgium, Holland, and western Germany.

188. Ignorance of the Early Middle Ages. None of the barbarian tribes knew anything of the art, literature, and science which had been developed by the Greeks and adopted by the Romans. For a period of three hundred years scarcely a person was to be found who could write out, even in the worst Latin, an account of the events of his day. Everything conspired to discourage education. The great centers of learning—Carthage, Rome, Alexandria, Milan—had all been partially destroyed by the invaders. The libraries, which had been kept in the temples of the pagan gods, were often burned, along with the temples themselves, by Christian enthusiasts, who were not sorry to see the heathen books disappear with the heathen religion.

189. Most Medieval Notions to be found in the Late Roman Empire. Long before the German conquest, art and literature had begun to decline toward the level that they reached in the early Middle Ages. Many of the ideas and conditions which prevailed after the invasions, were common enough before. Even the ignorance and strange ideas which we associate particularly with the Middle Ages are to be found in the later Roman Empire.

The term "Middle Ages" is generally applied to the period of about a thousand years which elapsed between the break-up of the Roman Empire and the opening of the sixteenth century. But there was a great difference between the dark period of the *early* Middle Ages and the remarkable achievements of the *late* Middle Ages, which will be described in due time.

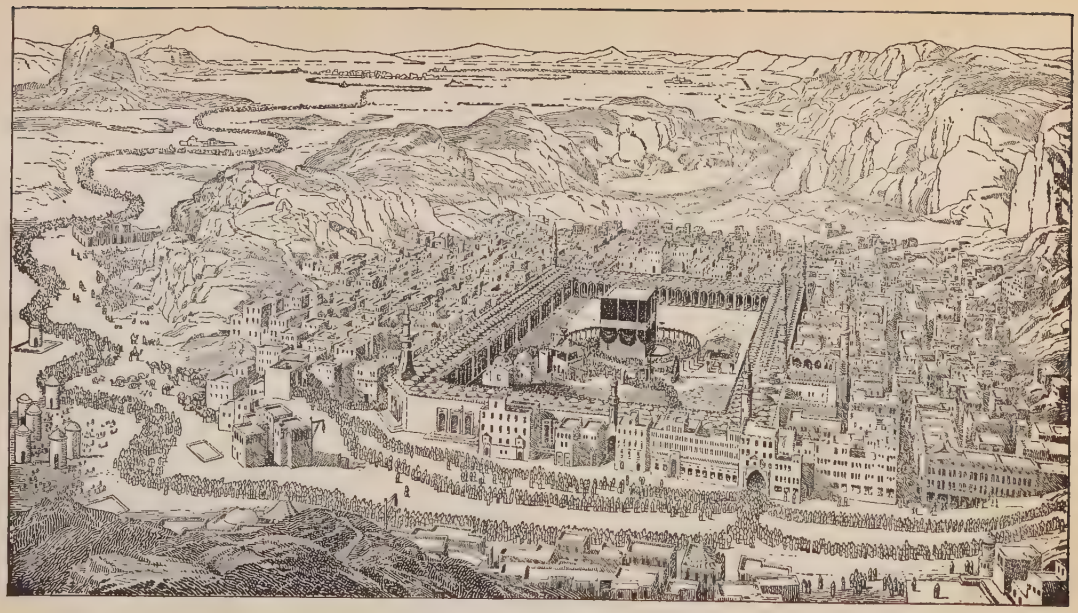
II. The Mohammedan Invasion of Europe

190. Mohammed. While the German barbarians were overwhelming the Empire from the north, a young camel-driver, Mohammed, in far-away Mecca was devising a religion in the name of which his followers were later to invade the eastern and southern portions of Europe.

As Mohammed traveled back and forth across the desert he became convinced that God was sending him messages which it was his duty to reveal to mankind. He met many Jews and Christians, of whom there were great numbers in Arabia, and through them he became somewhat familiar with the ideas of the Old and New Testaments. But when he tried to convince people that he was God's prophet, he was treated with scorn.

Finally, Mohammed discovered that his enemies in Mecca were planning to kill him, and he fled to the neighboring town of Medina, where he had friends. His flight, which took place in the year 622, is called by the Arabs the *Hejira*. It was taken by his followers as the beginning of a new era: the year One, as the Mohammedans reckon time.

THE MOHAMMEDAN CONQUESTS AT THEIR GREATEST EXTENT, ABOUT THE YEAR 750



MECCA AND ITS MOSQUE

The sacred building of the Mohammedans, called the Kaaba, lies in a vast court surrounded by a colonnade with minarets. Into the court the pilgrims are making their way to walk around the Kaaba seven times and kiss the black stone, embedded in the corner of the building. The Kaaba is covered with a great cloth sent each year by the Egyptian government. The old cover is torn up and sold to the pilgrims for relics

191. Islam and the Koran. It was eight years before Mohammed's followers became numerous enough to enable him to march upon Mecca and take it with a victorious army. Before his death in 632 he had gained the support of all the Arab chiefs, and his new religion, which he called *Islam* (meaning "reconciliation" to Allah, the sole God), was accepted throughout the whole Arabian peninsula. The new believers he called Muslims (Moslems), meaning "the reconciled." By us they are usually called Mohammedans, after their prophet.

Mohammed could probably neither write nor read well; but when he fell into trances from time to time, he would repeat to his eager listeners the words which he heard from heaven, and they in turn wrote them down. These sayings, which were collected into a volume shortly after his death, form the *Koran*, the Mohammedan Bible.

The Koran teaches that there is one God, the father of all. It emphasizes the equality of all true believers in his sight, whatever their station or race. It forbids the use of wine, and enjoins on its followers short daily prayers, a month of fasting during the daytime, and, if possible, a yearly pilgrimage to Mecca. There is no provision for priests or sacrifices.

It announces a day of judgment when the heavens shall be opened and the mountains be powdered and become like flying dust. Then all men shall receive their reward. Those who have refused to accept Islam shall be banished to hell, to be burned and tormented forever. Those, on the other hand, who have obeyed the Koran, especially those who die fighting for Islam, shall find themselves in a garden of delight.

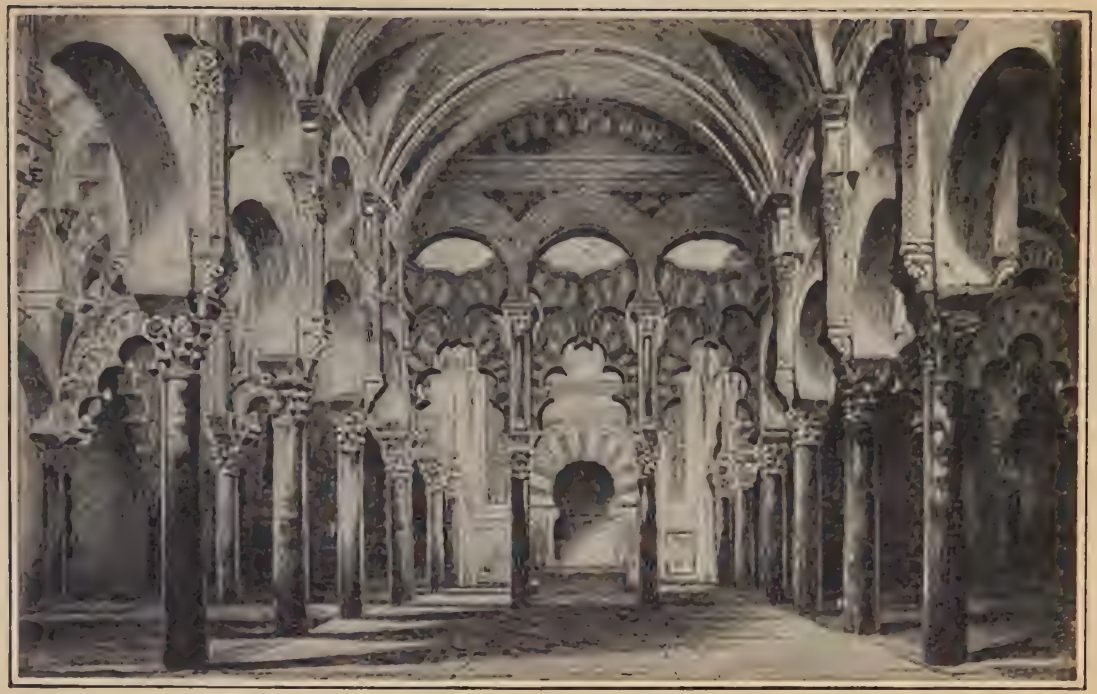
192. Mosques. The mosques, or temples, are often very beautiful buildings, especially in important Mohammedan cities such as Jerusalem, Damascus, and Cairo. They have great courts surrounded by covered colonnades and are adorned with beautiful marbles and mosaics. The walls are decorated with passages from the Koran, and the floors are covered with rich rugs. They have one or more minarets, from which the call to prayer is heard five times a day.

193. Rise of the Oriental Empire of the Moslems. The Moslem leaders who succeeded to Mohammed's power were called *caliphs* (from *califa*, "successor"). As rulers they proved to be men of the greatest ability. They organized the untamed desert nomads, who now added a burning religious zeal to the wild courage of barbarian Arabs. This combination made their armies irresistible. Within a few years after Mohammed's death they took Egypt and Syria from the feeble successors of Justinian at Constantinople. They thus reduced the Eastern Empire to little more than the Balkan Peninsula and Asia Minor. At the same time, the Arabs crushed the empire of the New Persians (§ 173), but took over their city civilization.

With the ruins of Babylon looking down upon them the Moslems built their splendid capital at Bagdad. Here they learned the business of government and became experienced rulers. Thus beside the shapeless mounds of the older capitals—Assur, Nineveh, and Babylon—the power and civilization of the Orient rose into new life for the last time. Bagdad became the finest city of the East and one of the most splendid in the world.

194. The Moslem Advance to the West; the Battle of Tours. Westward the Moslems pushed along the African coast of the Mediterranean, as their Phœnician kindred had done before them (§ 66). Only two generations after the death of Mohammed, the Arabs crossed over from Africa into Spain (711); then they moved on into France and threatened to girdle the entire Mediterranean. At the battle of Tours (732), however, the Moslems were defeated by the Frankish army, under its leader Charles, called the "Hammer." They withdrew permanently from France into Spain, where they established a western Moslem kingdom, which we call Moorish.

195. Influence of Moslem Civilization. The Moorish kingdom developed a civilization far higher than that of the Franks, and, indeed, the highest in the Europe of that age. For the Arabs seem to have learned something from every people with whom they came in contact, and to have combined Persian, Jewish, Greek, and even Indian ideas with their own Semitic gifts.



INTERIOR OF THE GREAT MOSQUE OF CORDOVA (LATTER PART OF TENTH CENTURY)

COURT OF THE LIONS IN THE ALHAMBRA (BEGUN IN 1377)

Thus while Christian Europe was sinking into the ignorance of the early Middle Ages, the Moslems were the leading students of science, astronomy, mathematics, and grammar. Such Arabic words as "alcohol," "algebra," "benzene," "cipher," "coffee," "cotton," "mattress," "sherbet," "sirup," and "zero," as well as our figures, which we also received from the Arabs, suggest how much we owe to them.

Some of the buildings which the Mohammedans constructed soon after their arrival still stand. Among these is the mosque at Cordova, with its forest of columns and arches. They also erected a great tower at Seville, famous for its beauty. The Mohammedans built beautiful palaces and laid out charming gardens. One of these palaces, the Alhambra, built at Granada some centuries after their arrival in Spain, is a marvel of lovely detail.

III. The Work of the Christian Church

196. The Church commences to perform the Duties of the Government. From the days of Constantine on, the Christian Church had usually enjoyed the hearty support of the government. As the great Empire fell apart, the Church was often called upon to assist in matters which properly belong to the State.

The authority of the various barbarian kings was seldom sufficient to keep their realms in order. There were always many powerful landholders scattered throughout the kingdom who did pretty much what they pleased, and who settled their grudges against their fellows by neighborhood wars. Fighting was the main business as well as the chief amusement of this class. The king was unable to maintain peace and protect the oppressed, however anxious he may have been to do so.

Under these circumstances it naturally fell to the Church to keep order, when it could, either by threats or persuasion; to see that contracts were kept, the wills of the dead carried out, and marriage obligations observed. It took the defenseless widow and orphan under its protection and dispensed charity;

it promoted education at a time when few laymen, however rich and noble, could even read. These conditions serve to explain why the Church was finally able so greatly to extend the powers which it had enjoyed under the Roman Empire, and why it undertook duties which seem to us to belong to the State rather than to a religious organization.

197. Origin of the Power of the Pope. We must now turn to a consideration of the origin and growth of the power of the popes, who, by raising themselves to the head of the Western Church, became in many respects stronger than any of the kings and princes with whom they frequently found themselves in bitter conflict. There had always been a tradition that St. Peter was the first bishop of Rome. Peter was singled out by Christ upon several occasions. In a passage of the New Testament (Matt. xvi, 18–19), which has affected history more profoundly than the edicts of the most powerful monarch, Christ says: "Thou art Peter, and upon this rock I will build my church; and the gates of hell shall not prevail against it. And I will give unto thee the keys of the kingdom of heaven: and whatsoever thou shalt bind on earth shall be bound in heaven; and whatsoever thou shalt loose on earth shall be loosed in heaven." This the popes have always claimed as the divine sanction of their office and of the authority which they believe to be theirs. The Roman Church was therefore early looked upon as the "Mother Church" in the West.

The name "pope" (from the Latin *papa*, "father") was originally given to all bishops, and even to priests. It began to be especially applied to the bishops of Rome, perhaps as early as the sixth century.

198. Gregory the Great (590–604). One of the most distinguished heads that the Church has ever had was Gregory the Great, through whose efforts the countries that were one day to be called England, France, and Germany were brought under the sway of the Roman Church and its head, the Pope. As Gregory had himself been a devoted monk, it was natural that he should rely chiefly upon the monks in his great work of con-

verting the heathen. Consequently, before considering his missionary achievements, we must glance at the origin and character of the monks, who are so conspicuous throughout the Middle Ages.

IV. The Monks and their Missions

199. Importance of the Monks. It would be difficult to overestimate the influence that the monks and other religious orders exercised for centuries in Europe. The proud annals of the Benedictines, Franciscans, Dominicans, and Jesuits contain many a distinguished name. Eminent philosophers, historians, artists, and poets, and many other leaders in various branches of human activity, have been monks, or members of religious orders.

200. Monasticism appealed to Many Classes. The monastery was the natural refuge not only of the religiously minded but of those of a studious or thoughtful disposition who disliked the career of a soldier and were disinclined to face the dangers and uncertainties of the times. It furnished, too, a refuge for the friendless, an asylum for the unfortunate, and sometimes food and shelter for the indolent, who would otherwise have had to earn their living. There were, therefore, many different motives which led people to enter monasteries. Kings and nobles, for the good of their souls, readily gave land upon which to found colonies of monks, and there were plenty of remote spots in the mountains and forests to invite those who wished to escape from the world and its temptations, its dangers, or its cares. Later, monasteries were sometimes built in towns or just outside the walls.

201. Rule of St. Benedict. Monastic communities first developed on a large scale in Egypt, in the fourth century. In the sixth century, monasteries multiplied so rapidly in western Europe that it became necessary to establish definite regulations for them. Accordingly St. Benedict wrote out, about the year 526, rules for the monastery of Monte Cassino, in southern

Italy, of which he was the head. These were gradually adopted by most of the Western monks.

The Rule of St. Benedict provided that the brethren should elect the head of the monastery—the abbot, as he was called. Along with frequent prayer and meditation the monks were to do the cooking and washing for the monastery and raise the necessary vegetables and grain. They were also to read and teach. Those who were unable to do outdoor work were assigned lighter tasks, such as copying books.

202. The Monastic Vows. The monk had to take the three vows—obedience, poverty, and purity. He was to obey the abbot without question in all matters that did not involve his committing a sin. He pledged himself to perpetual and absolute poverty; he was not permitted to own anything whatsoever, not even a book or a pen. He was also required to pledge himself that he would never marry.

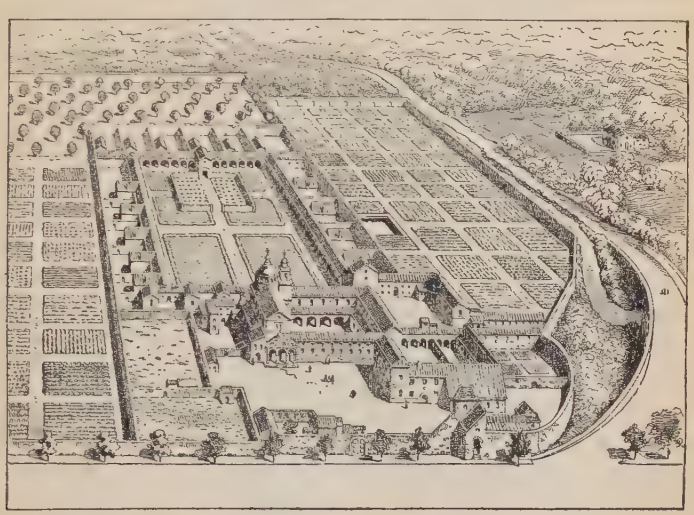
203. How the Monks contributed to Civilization. With the great loss of manuscripts due to the destruction of libraries and the general lack of interest in books, it was most essential that new copies should be made. Almost all the books written by the Romans disappeared altogether during the Middle Ages, but from time to time a monk would copy out the poems of Virgil, Horace, or Ovid, or the speeches of Cicero. In this way some of the chief works of the Latin writers have continued to exist down to the present day.

204. Arrangement of a Monastery. The home which the monks constructed for themselves was called a monastery or abbey. The buildings were arranged around a court. On all four sides of this was a covered walk, called the *cloister*, which made it possible to reach all the buildings without exposing oneself to either the rain or the hot sun.

On the north side of the cloister was the church. As time went on and certain groups of monks were given a great deal of property, they constructed very beautiful churches for their monasteries. Westminster Abbey, for instance, was originally the church of a monastery lying outside the city of London.

On the west side of the cloister were storerooms for provisions; on the south side were the *refectory*, or dining room, and a sitting room; and to the east of the cloister was the *dormitory*, where the monks slept.

The Benedictine Rule provided that, so far as possible, the monks should raise everything for their support on their own



MONASTERY OF VAL DI CRISTO

This monastery in Spain is very large and shows several courts with cloisters. The buildings were surrounded by vegetable gardens and an orchard which supplied the monks with food. We know that we are viewing the monastery from the west, for the church faces us

land. So outside the group of buildings around the cloister would be found the garden, the orchard, the mill, a fishpond, and fields for raising grain. There were also a hospital and a guest house for pilgrims or poor people who happened to come along.

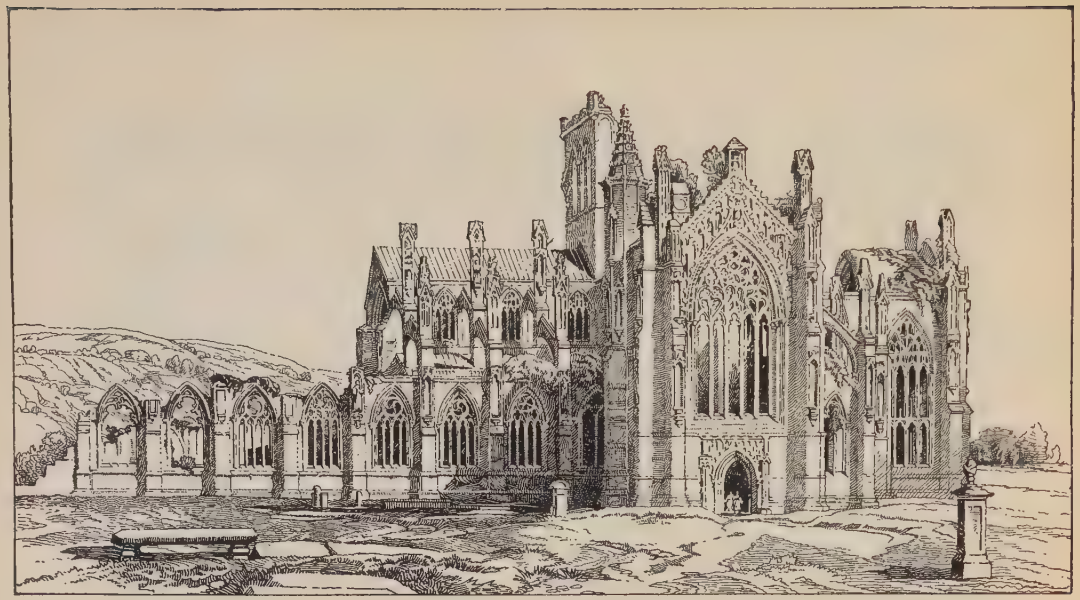
205. The Monks as Missionaries. The first great undertaking of the monks was the conversion of those German peoples who had not yet been won over to Christianity. In this they were successful, and the strength of the Roman Catholic Church was greatly increased. The first people to engage the attention of

the monks were the heathen German tribes who had conquered Britain and undone the work of earlier Christian missionaries.

206. Saxons and Angles conquer Britain. The islands which are now known as the kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland were at the opening of the Christian Era occupied by several Celtic peoples, of whose customs and religion we know almost nothing. Julius Cæsar commenced the conquest of the islands (55 B.C.) (§ 145). But the Romans never succeeded in establishing their power beyond the wall which they built from the Clyde to the Firth of Forth to keep out the wild tribes of the North. Even south of the wall the country was not completely Romanized or Christianized, and the Celtic tongue has actually survived down to the present day in Wales.

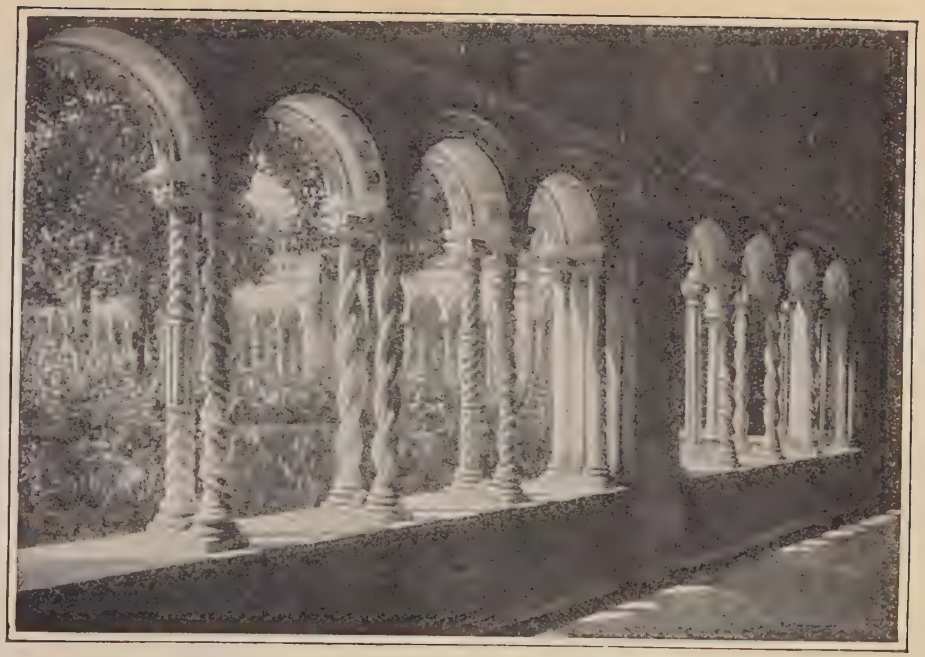
At the opening of the fifth century the barbarian invasions forced Rome to withdraw her legions from Britain in order to protect her frontiers on the Continent. The island was thus left to be conquered gradually by the Germanic peoples, mainly Saxons and Angles, who came across the North Sea from the region south of Denmark. Almost all record of what went on during the two centuries following the departure of the Romans has disappeared. No one knows the fate of the original Celtic inhabitants of England. It was formerly supposed that they were all killed or driven to the mountain districts of Wales. More probably they were gradually lost among the dominating Germans, with whom they merged into one people. The Saxon and Angle chieftains established several small kingdoms, and Britain came in time to be called *England*, or land of the Angles.

207. Conversion of Britain and Ireland. Pope Gregory the Great, while still a simple monk, had been struck with the beauty of some Angles whom he saw one day in the slave market at Rome, and wished to go as a missionary to their people, but permission was refused him. When he became Pope, however, he sent forty monks to Britain under the leadership of a prior named Augustine. The monks were kindly received by the king of Kent, who had a Christian wife, and were given an ancient Church at Canterbury, dating from the Roman occupation.



MELROSE ABBEY

The monastery at Melrose, Scotland, was founded in the eleventh century, but the church of which we here see the ruins was not built until about 1450. Sir Walter Scott, in one of his well-known novels, *The Monastery*, describes his impressions of the way in which the monks lived



THE CLOISTER OF ST. PAUL'S OUTSIDE THE WALLS AT ROME

This is one of the most beautiful cloisters in Italy. The decorations and mosaics are extremely interesting and varied, and practically no two of the many columns are the same

Here they established a monastery, and from this center the conversion of the whole island was gradually accomplished.

A century and a half before this time Ireland had been converted to Christianity by St. Patrick. From the numerous schools of Ireland, missionaries had gone forth to Scotland, England, and France.

208. St. Boniface, the Apostle to the Germans. In 718 St. Boniface, an English monk, was sent by the Pope as a missionary to the Germans. He succeeded in converting many of the more remote German tribes, which had still retained their old pagan beliefs. His energetic methods are illustrated by the story of how he cut down the sacred oak of the old German god Odin, at Fritzlar, in Hesse, and used the wood to build a chapel, around which a monastery soon grew up.

QUESTIONS

I. How did the Roman army come to include numbers of Germans? Trace the migrations of the West Goths. What is the Justinian Code? Who were the Franks? How much of modern Europe was included in their kingdom?

What is meant by the term "Middle Ages"? Contrast the civilization of the Middle Ages with that of the Roman period. What were the chief reasons why the Empire could no longer maintain itself?

II. Give an account of Mohammed's life. What were the principal features of the religion that he founded? Compare the mosques with Christian churches. Compare the spread of Mohammedanism with that of Christianity. What countries were conquered by the Mohammedans? Can you mention any contributions to civilization made by the Mohammedans?

III. In what ways did the government aid the early Christian Church? How did the Church assist the government? In what ways do you think the churches assist the government today? How did the Bishop of Rome become the head of the Church in the West?

IV. What were the advantages of life in a monastery in the early Middle Ages? What reasons existed then for this life which do not exist today? Describe a monastery and the life of the monks. What did the monks contribute to civilization? Describe some of their early missionary undertakings.

CHAPTER XIV

AGE OF DISORDER: FEUDALISM

I. Charlemagne and his Empire

209. Charlemagne (742?–814). We have seen how the kings of the Franks conquered a large territory, including western Germany and what is today called France. Charlemagne,[1] the most famous of medieval rulers, became king of the Frankish realms in 771. He is the first historical personage among the German peoples of whom we have any satisfactory knowledge. The impression which his reign made upon men's minds continued to grow even after his death. He became the hero of a whole series of romantic adventures which for centuries were as firmly believed as his real deeds.

Most of the medieval kings were ignorant, so far as books and learning went; but Charlemagne knew how to appreciate and encourage scholarship. While at dinner he had someone read to him; he delighted especially in history. He tried to learn writing, which was an unusual accomplishment at that time for any except churchmen, but he got no farther than signing his name. He called learned men to his court and did much toward reëstablishing a regular system of schools.

210. Charlemagne's Ideal of a Great Christian Empire. It was Charlemagne's ideal to bring all the German peoples together into one great Christian empire. He therefore undertook the difficult task of subjugating his pagan neighbors, the Saxons, and forcing them to be baptized. On the east Charlemagne's

[1] "Charlemagne" is the French form for the Latin *Carolus Magnus* (Charles the Great). We must never forget, however, that Charlemagne was not French; he spoke a German language, namely Frankish, and his favorite palaces—at Aix-la-Chappelle, Ingelheim, and Nimwegen—were in German regions.

realms were threatened by the Slavs, who were one day to build up the kingdoms of Poland and Bohemia and the vast Russian Empire. A single campaign seems to have been sufficient to repel them and force the Bohemians to acknowledge the Frankish king and to pay tribute to him.

In 773 Charlemagne crossed the Alps and invaded Lombardy (§ 186) to protect the Pope from his enemies, and succeeded in having himself recognized as king of the Lombards.

211. Charlemagne crowned Emperor by the Pope. But the most famous of all the achievements of Charlemagne was his reëstablishment in the year 800 of the Roman Empire in the West. Charlemagne went to Rome in that year to settle a dispute between Pope Leo III and his enemies. To celebrate the satisfactory settlement of the difficulty the Pope held a solemn service on Christmas Day in St. Peter's. As Charlemagne was kneeling before the altar during this service, the Pope set a crown upon his head, saluting him, amid the acclamations of those present, as "Emperor of the Romans." For inasmuch as Charlemagne held Rome itself in addition to his other possessions in Italy, Gaul, and Germany, it seemed appropriate to all that he should assume this august title.

212. Revival of the Roman Empire. The empire thus reestablished in the West was considered to be a continuation of the Roman Empire founded by Augustus; yet it is hardly necessary to say that the position of the new emperor had little in common with that of Augustus or Constantine. In the first place, the Eastern emperors continued to reign in Constantinople for centuries, quite regardless of Charlemagne and his successors (§ 175). In the second place, the German kings who wore the imperial crown after Charlemagne were generally too weak really to rule over Germany and northern Italy, to say nothing of the rest of western Europe.

213. Division of Charlemagne's Empire. The task of governing his vast dominions taxed even the highly gifted and untiring Charlemagne and was quite beyond the power of his successors. After his death (814) many attempts were made to divide the

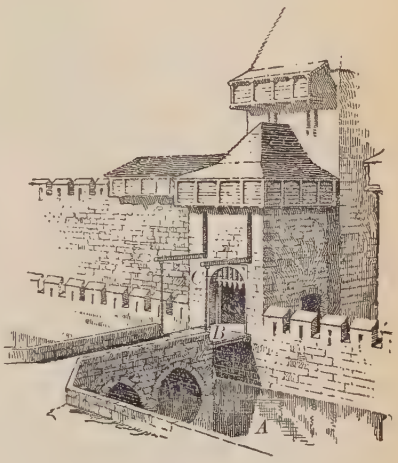
Empire peaceably among his descendants, but for generations they continued to fight over how much each should have. Finally it was agreed in 870, by the Treaty of Mersen, that there should be three states: a West Frankish Kingdom, an East Frankish kingdom, and a kingdom of Italy. The West Frankish realm corresponded roughly with the present boundaries of France and Belgium, and its people talked dialects derived from the spoken Latin; the East Frankish kingdom included the rest of Charlemagne's empire except Italy and was German in language.

214. Obstacles to maintaining Order. The Treaty of Mersen was followed by several centuries of continued disorder and warfare. There were a number of difficulties which stood in the way of peace. In the first place, a king found it very hard to get rapidly from one part of his realms to another in order to put down rebellions, for the Roman roads had fallen into disrepair, and the bridges had been carried away by floods. Besides, the king had very little money. There were not many gold or silver mines in western Europe, and there was no supply of precious metals from outside, for commerce with the Eastern countries had largely died out. So the king had no treasury from which to pay his many officials and had to give them *land* instead of *money* in return for their services. In this way they gradually became rulers themselves within their own possessions.

215. New Invasions. Moreover, frequent new invasions from all directions kept the three parts of Charlemagne's empire, and England besides, in a state of fear and disaster. The Mohammedans, who had got possession of northern Africa and of Spain, gained control of the island of Sicily shortly after Charlemagne's death and began to terrorize Italy and southern France. On the east the Slavs, whom Charlemagne had defeated in his time, continued to make trouble; and the Hungarians, a savage race from Asia, penetrated into the Frankish kingdom. Finally, they were driven back eastward and settled in the country now named after them—Hungary.

216. The Northmen. Lastly there came the Northmen,[1] bold and adventurous pirates from the shores of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, who not only attacked the towns on the coast of the West Frankish kingdom but made their way up the rivers, plundering and burning the villages and towns as far inland as Paris.

So there was danger always and everywhere. If rival nobles were not fighting one another, there were foreign invaders of some kind devastating the country, bent on robbing, maltreating, and enslaving the people in the towns and villages and monasteries.



FORTIFIED GATE OF A MEDIEVAL CASTLE

Here one can see the way in which the entrance to a castle was carefully protected: the moat (*A*); the drawbridge (*B*); the portcullis (*C*)

217. Medieval Fortresses. In the absence of a powerful king with a well-organized army to support him, each district was left to look out for itself, and the people came to depend on the nobles, who had armed soldiers, to protect them. As the disorder caused by the incoming barbarians increased, the various counts and dukes and other large landowners began to build fortified castles for themselves.

218. General Arrangement of a Castle. When the castle was not on a steep rocky hill, which made it very hard to approach, a deep ditch was dug outside the walls, called the *moat*. This was filled with water and crossed by a bridge, which could be drawn up when the castle was attacked, cutting off the means

[1] These Scandinavian pirates are often called *vikings*, from their habit of leaving their long boats in the *vik*, which meant, in their language, "bay" or "inlet."

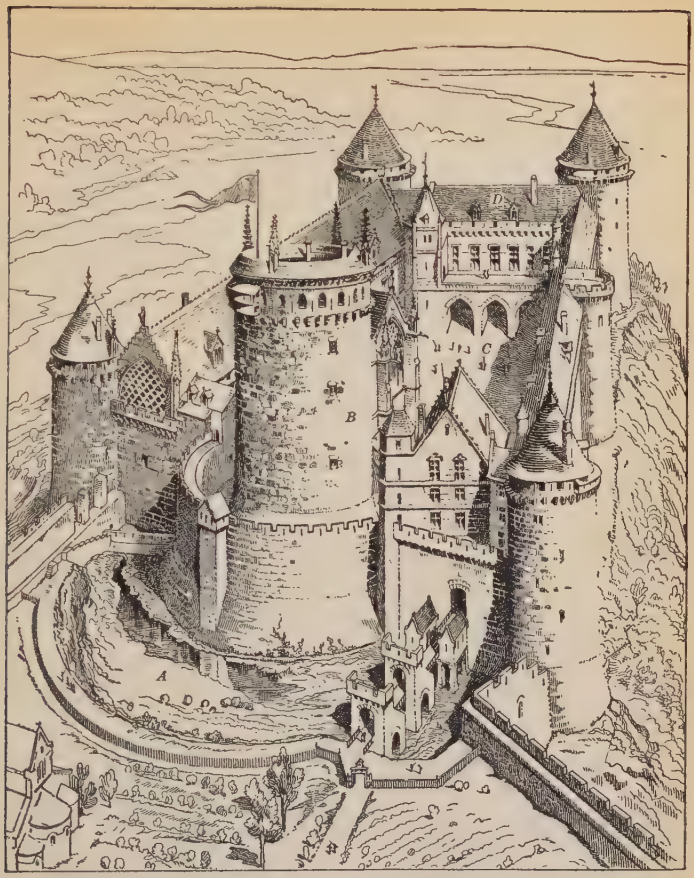
of approach. The doorway was further protected by a grating of heavy planks, called the *portcullis*, which could be quickly dropped down to close the entrance. Inside the castle walls was the great *donjon*, or chief tower. From the tiny windows in the towers the occupants were able to shoot arrows or pour melted pitch or lead on those who attacked them. There was sometimes also a fine hall, and handsome rooms for the use of the lord and his family. There were buildings for storing supplies and arms, and usually a chapel.

II. The Feudal System and Neighborhood Warfare

219. Gradual Development of Feudalism. A landholder who had large estates often found it to his advantage to grant some of his lands to other persons on condition that those receiving the land should pledge themselves to accompany him to war, guard his castle upon occasion, and assist him when he was put to any unusually great expense. It was in this way that the relation of *lord* and *vassal* originated. The vassal, who received the land, promised to be true to his lord; and the lord, on the other hand, not only let his vassal have the land but agreed to protect him when it was necessary. These arrangements between vassals and lords constituted what is called the *feudal system*. The feudal system, or feudalism, was not established by any decree of a king or in virtue of a general agreement between all the landowners. It grew up *gradually* because it seemed convenient under the circumstances. Land granted upon these terms was called a *fief*.

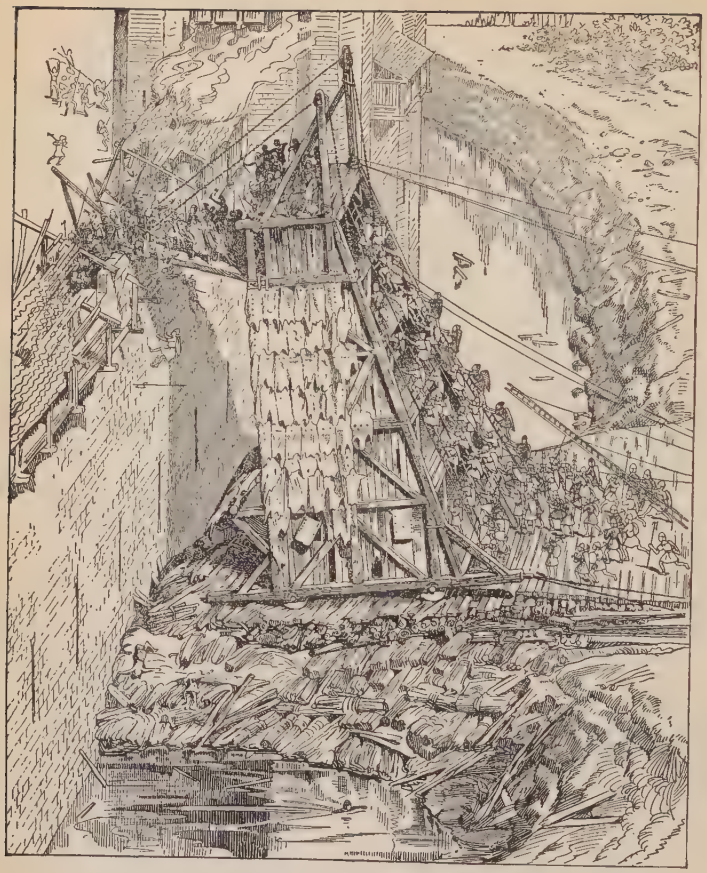
220. Homage and Fidelity. The one proposing to become a vassal knelt before the lord and rendered him homage[1] by placing his hands between those of the lord and declaring himself the lord's "man" for such and such a fief. Thereupon the lord gave his vassal the kiss of peace and raised him from his kneeling posture. Then the vassal swore an oath of fidelity, solemnly binding himself to fulfill all his duties toward his lord.

[1] "Homage" is derived from the Latin word *homo*, meaning "man."



COUCY-LE-CHÂTEAU

This castle of Coucy-le-Château was built by a vassal of the king of France in the thirteenth century. It was at the end of a hill and protected on all sides but one by steep cliffs. One can see the moat (*A*) and the double drawbridge and towers which protected the portal. The round donjon (*B*) was probably the largest in the world, one hundred feet in diameter and two hundred and ten feet high. At the base its walls were thirty-four feet thick. At the end of the inner court (*C*) was the residence of the lord (*D*). To the left of the court was a great hall and to the right were the quarters of the garrison. This ancient building was destroyed by the Germans during the recent World War



MOVABLE TOWER

This attacking tower was rolled up to the wall of the besieged town after the moat had been filled up at the proper point. The soldiers then swarmed up the outside and over a bridge onto the wall. Skins of animals were hung on the side to prevent the tower from being set on fire

221. Various Kinds of Fiefs. There were fiefs of all grades of importance, from that of a duke or count, who held directly of the king and exercised the powers of a practically independent prince, down to the holding of the simple knight, whose bit of land was barely sufficient to enable him to support himself and provide the horse upon which he rode.

It is essential to observe that the fief became *hereditary* in the family of the vassal and passed down to the eldest son from one generation to another. So long as the vassal and his heirs remained faithful, neither the lord nor *his* heirs could rightfully regain possession of the land. In short, the fief came really to belong to the vassal, and only the shadow of ownership remained in the hands of the lord.

222. Subvassals of the King not under his Control. Obviously the great vassals who held directly of the king became almost independent of him as soon as their fiefs were granted to them and their descendants. Further, their vassals, since they had not done homage to the king himself, often paid little attention to his commands. From the ninth to the thirteenth century the king of France or the king of Germany did not rule over a great realm occupied by subjects who owed him obedience as their lawful sovereign, and who were bound to fight for him. As a feudal landlord himself the king did have a right to demand fidelity and certain services from those who were his vassals. But the great mass of the people over whom he nominally ruled owed little to the king *directly*, because they lived upon the lands of other feudal lords more or less independent of him.

223. War the Law of the Feudal World. One has only to read a chronicle of the time to discover that brute force ruled everywhere outside the Church. The feudal obligations were not fulfilled except when the lord was sufficiently powerful to enforce them. The oath of fidelity was constantly broken, and faith was violated by both vassal and lord. War formed the chief occupation of the restless nobles as well as of their vassals.

224. The Kings finally get the Better of the Feudal Lords. We must not infer that the State ceased to exist altogether dur-

ing the centuries of confusion that followed the break-up of Charlemagne's empire, or that it fell entirely apart into little local governments independent of one another. The *king*, solemnly anointed by the Church, was, after all, always something more than a feudal lord. Moreover, the kings were destined, before many centuries, to get the upper hand in England, France, and Spain, and finally in Italy and Germany, and to destroy the castles behind whose walls their haughty nobles had long defied the royal power.

QUESTIONS

I. How did Charlemagne build up an empire in western Europe? What is meant by Charlemagne's reëstablishment of the Roman Empire in the West?

How was Charlemagne's empire finally divided after his death? What were the general causes for disorder during the ninth and tenth centuries? Who were the chief new invaders? Explain the origin of the medieval nobles. Describe a medieval castle.

II. Describe the conditions which led to the development of the feudal system. What advantages did the lord and the vassal derive from their relationship? How did the feudal system affect the power of the king? Why was neighborhood warfare common in this period?

NOTE. Conway Castle, shown below, was built by Edward I in 1284 to keep the Welsh in check. Its walls are from twelve to fifteen feet thick.

CHAPTER XV

POPES AND EMPERORS; THE MEDIEVAL CHURCH AND THE CRUSADES

I. The Long Struggle between Popes and Emperors

225. The Beginnings of France. By the Treaty of Mersen, Charlemagne's empire had been divided into three parts, corresponding roughly to modern France, Germany, and Italy. The western portion, destined to become France, was held by a great many dukes and counts, who built strong castles, had their own bands of warriors, and were practically independent of their kings. In the tenth century some of the larger fiefs, like Normandy, Brittany, and Burgundy, developed into little nations each under its line of able rulers. They were often at war with their king, who for a long time was less powerful than many of his vassals.

226. Otto the Great (936–973). The East Frankish, or German, part of Charlemagne's empire had also, after his death, fallen apart into big and little fiefs, and the various dukes and counts were constantly making war on one another and on their weak kings. The first German king who gained much distinction was Otto the Great, who came to the throne in 936. Although he was having plenty of trouble in keeping his vassals in Germany under his control, he nevertheless determined to try to add northern Italy to his realms and succeeded in being acknowledged king of Italy. Later the Pope, needing protection from his enemies, called Otto to Rome and, in return for his assistance, crowned him Emperor, as Charlemagne's successor, in the year 962. Thus the *Holy Roman Empire*, as it came to be called, was established, to go on for another eight centuries, as we shall see. (See Map 7.)

227. Germany and the Holy Roman Empire. The coronation of Otto was a very important event in the history of Germany for two reasons. In the first place, the German rulers from this time on aspired to be the successors of the old Roman emperors and to control Italy. They were so constantly distracted, however, by their efforts to keep their hold on their Italian possessions beyond the Alps that they failed to bring their own vassals under their control. They were consequently never able to build up a strong state, as the French and English kings succeeded in doing. In the second place, although the title of "Emperor Ever August of the Romans" was a proud one, it gave the German kings no additional power except the right they claimed to take part in the election of the Pope. This claim brought them into conflict with the mighty rulers of the Church, who in the end proved themselves to be the stronger and finally helped to reduce the Empire to a mere shadow.

228. The Investiture Struggle. The chief cause for strife between the popes and the German emperors was the question of the vast tracts of land which had been given from time to time to bishops and abbots in Germany. The Pope naturally thought that as he was the head of all the churchmen in Christendom, he therefore should have the right to influence the selection of bishops and abbots in Germany and enjoy some of the income from the Church lands which they held. The Emperor, on the other hand, regarded the lands held by the churchmen in much the same light as those of other feudal lords, because the bishops and abbots were responsible to him for the government of their territories and were practically counts and dukes. He therefore wished to control the election of new bishops and abbots, and required them to do him "homage," like his other vassals. This long conflict is called the struggle over *investiture*; that is, whether Pope or Emperor should have the right to *invest* the churchmen with their lands and the symbols of their office.

229. Gregory VII strengthens the Papacy. About the middle of the eleventh century the popes determined to take the Church out of the hands of the kings and princes and build up

a strong international monarchy under their own control. The first important move was the decree of 1059, which deprived the Emperor and other rulers of all part in electing the popes by placing the choice of a new Pope in the hands of the leading Roman prelates (who came to be called *cardinals*[1]), where it has remained ever since.

In 1073 Gregory VII (often called Hildebrand), the most celebrated of the medieval popes, ascended the papal throne. Among his writings is a brief statement called the *Dictatus*, in which he claims the complete supremacy of the Pope. He says that "the Pope is the only person whose feet are kissed by all princes"; that he may depose emperors and "absolve subjects from allegiance to an unjust ruler." No one shall dare to condemn one who appeals to the Pope. No one may annul a decree of the Pope, though the Pope may declare null and void the decrees of all other earthly powers; and no one may pass judgment upon his acts.

230. Long Struggle between the Popes and Emperors. One of Gregory VII's first acts was to forbid the German prelates to receive their investiture from the Emperor. This so irritated the young ruler Henry IV that he ordered the Pope deposed as a wicked man (1076). The Pope in turn deposed Henry, whose vassals thereupon deserted him. Henry was obliged to plead for the Pope's forgiveness as a barefoot suppliant before the castle at Canossa where the Pope was staying. The spectacle of a mighty prince, of distinguished appearance, in tears before a man of small stature who humbly styled himself "the servant of the servants of God" has always been regarded as typifying the power of the medieval Church when directed against even the most exalted rulers of the earth.

The famous scene at Canossa settled nothing, however, and

[1] The cardinals (from the Latin *cardinals*, "principal") were originally clergymen connected with the churches in or near Rome, but later the popes frequently appointed distinguished prelates from other countries to be cardinals. In 1586 their number was fixed at seventy. When a Pope dies, the college of cardinals convenes at Rome and elects his successor, usually from their own number.

the struggle between popes and emperors went on after the death of both Gregory VII and Henry IV. The later conflicts turned on the question of the Emperor's control in Italy.

The outcome was that the powers of the emperors declined while that of the popes increased. Germany remained, as has been said, a mass of practically independent duchies, counties, archbishoprics, bishoprics, monasteries, and free towns. The rulers of these paid little attention to the kings, who continued to claim the title of Emperor down to the beginning of the nineteenth century (§ 608).

II. The Medieval Church

231. General Character of the Medieval Church. In the preceding pages it has been necessary to refer constantly to the Church and the clergy. Indeed, without them medieval history would become almost a blank, for the Church was incomparably the most important institution of the time, and the popes, bishops, and abbots were the soul of nearly every great enterprise. We have already had abundant proofs that the medieval Church was very different from our modern churches, whether Catholic or Protestant.

1. In the first place, everyone was required to belong to it, just as we all must belong to some country today. One was not born into the Church, it is true, but he was ordinarily baptized into it when he was a mere infant. All western Europe formed a single religious association, from which it was a crime to revolt.

2. The medieval Church did not rely for its support, as churches usually must today, upon the voluntary contributions of its members. It enjoyed, in addition to the revenue from its vast tracts of lands and a great variety of fees, the income from a regular tax, the *tithe*. Those upon whom this fell were forced to pay it, just as we all must now pay taxes imposed by the government.

3. It is clear, moreover, that the medieval Church was not merely a religious body, as churches are today. Of course it

maintained places of worship, but it did far more. It was, in a way, a *state* (§ 196); for it had its own courts, in which it tried many cases which are now settled in our ordinary courts. One may get some idea of the business of the Church courts from the fact that the Church possessed the right to try all cases involving a clergyman, or anyone else under its special protection such as monks, students, crusaders, widows, orphans, and the helpless. Then the Church courts had all cases concerning marriage, wills, sworn contracts, blasphemy, sorcery, heresy, and so forth. The Church even had its prisons, to which it might sentence offenders for life if they were convicted of serious heresy (see § 234).

4. The Church not only performed the functions of a state, but it had the organization of a state. Unlike the Protestant ministers of today, all churchmen of medieval Europe were under one supreme head, the Pope, who made laws for all, and controlled every church officer, wherever he might be, whether in Italy or Germany, Spain or Ireland. The whole Church had one official language, Latin, in which all communications were written and in which its services were everywhere conducted.

232. Reasons for the Great Power of Clergymen in the Middle Ages. The influence of the clergy was greatly increased by the fact that they alone were educated. For six or seven centuries after the break-up of the Roman Empire very few besides the clergy ever dreamed of studying, or even of learning to read and write. Even in the thirteenth century an offender who wished to prove that he belonged to the clergy, in order that he might be tried by a Church court instead of by the king's court, had only to show that he could read a single line; for it was assumed by the judges that no one unconnected with the Church could read at all.

It was inevitable, therefore, that all the teachers should be clergymen, that almost all the books should be written by priests and monks, and that the clergy should be the ruling power in all intellectual, artistic, and literary matters—the chief guardians and promoters of civilization. Moreover, the civil

government was forced to rely upon churchmen to write out the public documents and proclamations. The priests and monks held the pen for the king. Representatives of the clergy sat in the king's councils and acted as his ministers; in fact, the conduct of the government largely devolved upon them.

233. Excommunication and Interdict. No wonder that the churchmen were by far the most powerful class in the Middle Ages. They controlled great wealth; they were the most highly educated class; it was believed that they held the keys of the kingdom of heaven and that without their aid no one could hope to enter in. By excommunication they could cast out the enemies of the Church and could forbid all men to associate with them, since they were accursed. By means of the *interdict* they could suspend all religious ceremonies in a whole city or country by closing the church doors and prohibiting all public services.

234. Rise of Heresy. Those who questioned the teachings of the Church and cast off its authority were regarded as guilty of *heresy*. This was the supreme crime in the Middle Ages. It is very difficult for us who live in a time of religious toleration to understand the universal and deep-rooted horror of heresy which long prevailed in Europe. But we must recollect that to the faithful believer in the Church nothing could exceed the guilt of one who committed treason against God by rejecting the religion which had been handed down in the Catholic Church from the immediate followers of Jesus. Moreover, doubt and unbelief were not merely sin; they were revolt against the most powerful social institution of the time, which continued to be venerated by people at large throughout western Europe.

235. The Inquisition. The most permanent defense of the Church against heresy was the establishment, under the headship of the Pope, of a system of courts designed to ferret out secret cases of unbelief and bring the offenders to punishment. These courts, which devoted their whole attention to the discovery and conviction of heretics, were called the Holy Inquisition. Those suspected of heresy were often subjected to long imprisonment or torture, inflicted with the hope of forcing them

to confess their crime or to implicate others. The inquisitors, however, were often earnest and upright men, and the methods of procedure of the Inquisition were not more cruel than those used in the other courts of the period. The Church, whose law forbade it to shed blood, handed over an obstinate heretic who refused to repent to the civil power, which burned him alive without further trial.

236. St. Francis of Assisi. We may now turn to that far more cheerful and effective method of meeting the opponents of the Church which may be said to have been discovered by St. Francis of Assisi. There is no more lovely and fascinating figure in all history than St. Francis. He was born (probably in 1182) at Assisi, a little town in central Italy. He was the son of a well-to-do merchant and led a gay life during his youth. But after a serious illness at the age of twenty he lost his love for his former pleasures and began to consort with beggars, especially lepers. He soon began to preach in his simple way. Others joined him, and they went barefoot and penniless about central Italy trying to arouse interest in religion. Pope Innocent III, although at first suspicious of these ragged brethren, decided to approve the enterprise (1210).

237. Missionary Work of the Franciscans. Seven years later, when Francis's followers had greatly increased in numbers, missionary work was begun on a large scale, and brethren were dispatched to Germany, Hungary, France, Spain, and even to Syria. It was not long before an English chronicler was telling with wonder of the arrival in his country of these barefoot men in their patched gowns and with ropes about their waists, who, with Christian faith, took no thought for the morrow, believing that their Heavenly Father knew what things they had need of. Francis never wished his followers to become a rich order, but people were ready to found monasteries for them, and after their founder's death the order tended to drift away from St. Francis's idea of simple and complete poverty.

238. The Founding of the Dominican Order. Another great order of begging brethren, or mendicant friars (from *frater*,

"brother"), was founded by St. Dominic (1215), a learned man who decided to devote his life to combating heresy. He induced Innocent III to approve his undertaking and sent forth his followers as St. Francis had done. By 1221 the Dominican order was thoroughly organized and had sixty monasteries scattered over western Europe.

The Dominicans were called the "Preaching Friars" and were carefully trained in theology in order the better to refute the arguments of the heretics. The Pope delegated to them especially the task of conducting the Inquisition.

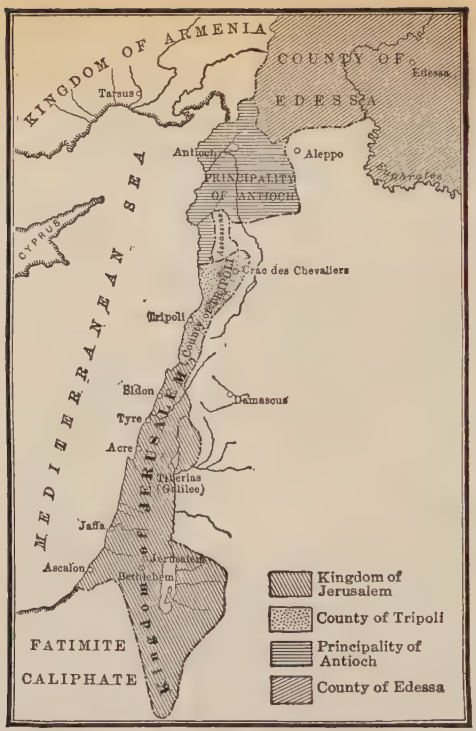
III. The Crusades

239. Fascination of the Crusades. Of all the events of the Middle Ages the most romantic are the Crusades, the adventurous expeditions to Palestine undertaken with the hope of reclaiming the Holy Land from the infidel Turks. All through the twelfth and thirteenth centuries each generation beheld at least one great army of crusaders gathering from every part of the West and starting toward the Orient.

For two hundred years there was a continuous stream of Europeans of every rank and station—kings and princes, powerful nobles, simple knights, common soldiers, monks, townspeople, and even peasants—from England, France, Germany, Spain, and Italy, making their way into Western Asia.

240. The Holy Land conquered by the Turks. Syria had been overrun by the Arabs shortly after the death of Mohammed, and the Holy City of Jerusalem had fallen into the hands of the infidels. The Arab, however, shared with the Christian the veneration for the places associated with the life of Christ and, in general, permitted the Christian pilgrims to worship unmolested. But with the coming of a new and ruder people, the Seljuk Turks, in the eleventh century, the pilgrims began to bring home news of great hardships. Moreover, the Eastern Emperor, Alexius, finding himself unequal to the task of repelling the Turks, appealed to the Pope, Urban II, for aid.

A Crusader and his Followers



THE CRUSADERS' STATES IN SYRIA AND PALESTINE

This map shows the principalities which the famous knights of the First Crusade conquered for themselves in Syria and Palestine. The most prominent of the leaders were Raymond of Toulouse, with followers from southern France, Godfrey of Bouillon and his brother Baldwin, commanding forces from eastern France and western Germany, and lastly Bohemond and Tancred, leading the French, and the Normans who had settled in southern Italy. Baldwin got possession of Edessa. The knights induced the great body of Crusaders to postpone their march on Jerusalem, and a year was spent in capturing the ancient city of Antioch. A bitter struggle then began between the Norman Bohemond and the count of Toulouse as to who should have the conquered town. After the most unworthy conduct on both sides Bohemond won, and Raymond set to work to win a principality for himself on the coast about the port of Tripoli. After the capture of Jerusalem Godfrey of Bouillon was chosen as its ruler. He soon died and was succeeded by his brother Baldwin, who left Edessa in 1100 to take up the task of extending the bounds of the kingdom of Jerusalem. So the Westerners, or "Franks," controlled for a time regions for which Assyrians and Persians and Greeks and Romans had struggled

241. Urban II issues a Call to the First Crusade (1095). The Pope responded, and at a Church council held at Clermont in France (1095) he summoned princes, knights, and soldiers of all ranks to give up their wicked business of fighting their Christian brethren in the constant neighborhood warfare (§ 223) and to turn instead to the aid of their fellow Christians in the East.

The proposed campaign appealed to many different kinds of men. The devout, the romantic, and the adventurous were by no means the only classes that were attracted. Syria held out inducements to the discontented noble who might hope to gain a principality in the East, to the merchant who was looking for new enterprises, to the restless man who wished to avoid his responsibilities at home, and even to the criminal who enlisted with a view of escaping the punishment for his past offenses. The faithful crusader, like the Mohammedan, was assured of immediate entrance to heaven if he died repentant for his sins.

242. The First Crusade (1096). The most conspicuous figures of the long period of the Crusades are the knights, in their long coats of flexible armor. A year after the summons issued at Clermont great armies of fighting men had been collected in the West under distinguished leaders. The Eastern Emperor had hoped to use his Western allies to reconquer Asia Minor and force back the Turks. The leading knights, on the contrary, dreamed of carving out principalities for themselves in the former dominions of the Emperor and proposed to control them by right of conquest.

243. Conquest of Jerusalem. In the spring of 1099 about twenty thousand warriors were at last able to move upon Jerusalem. In spite of all the difficulties, the place was taken in a couple of months. The crusaders showed no mercy to the people of the city, but massacred them with shocking barbarity.

244. Founding of Latin Principalities in Syria. The Westerners set up several kingdoms of their own. These were Edessa, Antioch, the region about Tripoli, and the kingdom of Jerusalem. But they found it impossible to hold the land against the Mohammedans, for the greater part of those who visited

Palestine returned home after fulfilling the vow they had made to kneel at the Holy Sepulcher, and so the new rulers were left to protect themselves as best they could.

245. Later Crusades. Fifty years after the preaching of the First Crusade, the fall of Edessa (1144), an important outpost of the Christians in the East, led to a second expedition. This was forwarded by the great theologian St. Bernard, who went about using his unrivaled eloquence to induce volunteers to join the Crusade. Nevertheless, the Second Crusade (1144) was a miserable failure.

In the year 1187, forty years later, Jerusalem was recaptured by Saladin, the most heroic and distinguished of all the Mohammedan rulers of that period. The loss of the Holy City led to the most famous of all the military expeditions to the Holy Land, in which the rulers of Germany, England, and France all took part. The accounts of this Third Crusade show that while the several Christian leaders hated one another heartily enough, the Christians and Mohammedans—or Saracens, as they were often called—were coming to respect each other. We find examples of the most polite relations between the representatives of the opposing religions. The further expeditions, in which Jerusalem was recaptured for a short time, need not be described, for it was permanently lost in 1244. Although the possibility of recovering the Holy City was long considered, the Crusades may be said to have come to an end before the close of the thirteenth century.

246. Oriental Luxuries introduced into Europe. One class of people eagerly interested in promoting the Crusades was the Italian merchants, whose business greatly profited by the new contact with the Orient. Eastern products from India and elsewhere—silks, spices, camphor, musk, pearls, and ivory—were brought by the Mohammedans from the East to the commercial towns of Palestine and Syria; then, through the Italian merchants, they found their way into France and Germany, suggesting ideas of luxury hitherto scarcely dreamed of by the still half-barbarous Franks.

247. Other Results of the Crusades. Some of the effects of the Crusades upon western Europe must already be obvious. Thousands and thousands of Frenchmen, Germans, and Englishmen had traveled to the Orient by land and by sea. Most of them came from hamlets or castles, where they could never have learned much of the great world beyond the confines of their native village or province. They suddenly found themselves in great cities and in the midst of unfamiliar peoples and customs. This could not fail to make them think and give them new ideas to carry home. The Crusade took the place of a liberal education. The crusaders came in contact with a race of people who knew more than they did—the Arabs.

QUESTIONS

I. How did the king of the East Franks come to have the title of Emperor of the Romans? What was the Holy Roman Empire? How is the Pope elected today? What were the powers of the Pope as claimed in the *Dictatus* of Gregory VII? Has the Pope more or less power today than he had in the time of Gregory VII?

II. Give a picture of the medieval Church at the height of its power. In what ways did it resemble an international state? Why was the clergy so important in the Middle Ages? What were the chief reasons for the struggle between the popes and the emperors?

What was "heresy"? Describe the Holy Inquisition. What were the mendicant orders? How did they differ from the monks with whom we are acquainted? Contrast the Franciscans and Dominicans. Give an account of St. Francis.

What was the outcome of the later Crusades? What was the effect of the Crusades on commerce? on general thought?

CHAPTER XVI

ENGLAND AND FRANCE IN THE MIDDLE AGES

I. The Norman Conquest

248. Peculiar Interest of English History. The history of England is naturally of especial interest to all English-speaking peoples, for it is from the English that they have derived their language, their habits of thought, much of their literature, and many of their laws and institutions.

249. The Danes and Alfred the Great (871–901). The conquest of Britain by the Angles and Saxons and its conversion to Christianity by Augustine and his monks have already been spoken of (§ 207). These invasions had scarcely come to an end before the Northmen (or Danes, as the English called them), who were ravaging France, began to make incursions into England. They were defeated, however, by Alfred the Great, the first English king of whom we know much. Alfred forced the Danes to accept Christianity and keep out of southern England. But the Danes continued to make trouble, and finally a Danish king (Cnut) succeeded in making himself king of all England in 1017. The Danish dynasty did not last many years and was succeeded by a Saxon king, Edward the Confessor.

Upon his death one of the greatest events in English history occurred. The most powerful of the vassals of the king of France, the Duke of Normandy, crossed the English Channel, conquered England, and made himself its king. This was William the Conqueror.

250. Normandy. The duchy of Normandy, which lay just across the channel from England, was peopled by descendants of the Northmen who had been permitted to settle there by the West Frankish king some hundred and fifty years earlier.

The country had developed rapidly under its dukes, and their capital, Rouen, had become a very fine town for those days.

251. Norman Conquest of England. King Harold, successor to Edward the Confessor, made a brave stand against the invading Normans, but was defeated and killed in the famous battle of Hastings (1066), and Duke William seems to have found little trouble in winning over a number of influential English nobles. London opened its gates to him, and he was solemnly elected and crowned king of England in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day, 1066.

William made as few changes as possible. He retained the *witenagemot*, or assembly of bishops and nobles, which the Saxon kings had been accustomed to consult. He understood very well the inconvenience of having overpowerful vassals, so he avoided giving large possessions in a single district to any one of his supporters.

252. General Results of the Norman Conquest. It is clear that the Norman Conquest was not a simple change of kings but that a new element was added to the English people. We cannot tell how many Normans actually emigrated across the Channel, but they evidently came in considerable numbers, and their influence upon the English habits and government was very great. A century after William's conquest the whole body of the nobility, the bishops, the abbots, and the government officials were practically all Normans. Besides these, the architects who built the castles and fortresses, the cathedrals and abbeys, came from Normandy. Merchants from the Norman cities of Rouen and Caen also settled in England.

For a time these newcomers remained a separate people, but by the year 1200 they had become for the most part indistinguishable from the great mass of English people among whom they had come.

They had nevertheless introduced among the inhabitants of England a new and important element which made the nation more energetic, active-minded, and varied in its occupations and interests than it had been before the Conquest.

II. Henry II and the Plantagenets[1]

253. Henry II (1154–1189). After William's death there was a great deal of disorder for two generations, and when his great-grandson, Henry II, came to the throne in 1154, he found the kingdom in a melancholy condition. In order to put an end to the constant feuds and fighting Henry reorganized the courts, and his judges made regular circuits to try cases. The grand jury was introduced to bring accusations against criminals and disturbers of the peace. Henry had need of all his energy to restore order in England and at the same time to rule his wide realms in France, which he had inherited from his French father and acquired by marriage with a French heiress.

254. The French Possessions of the Plantagenets. Henry II spent a great part of his time across the Channel in his French possessions. A glance at the map will show that rather more than half his realms lay to the south of the English Channel. Indeed, he controlled more territory in France than the French king himself.

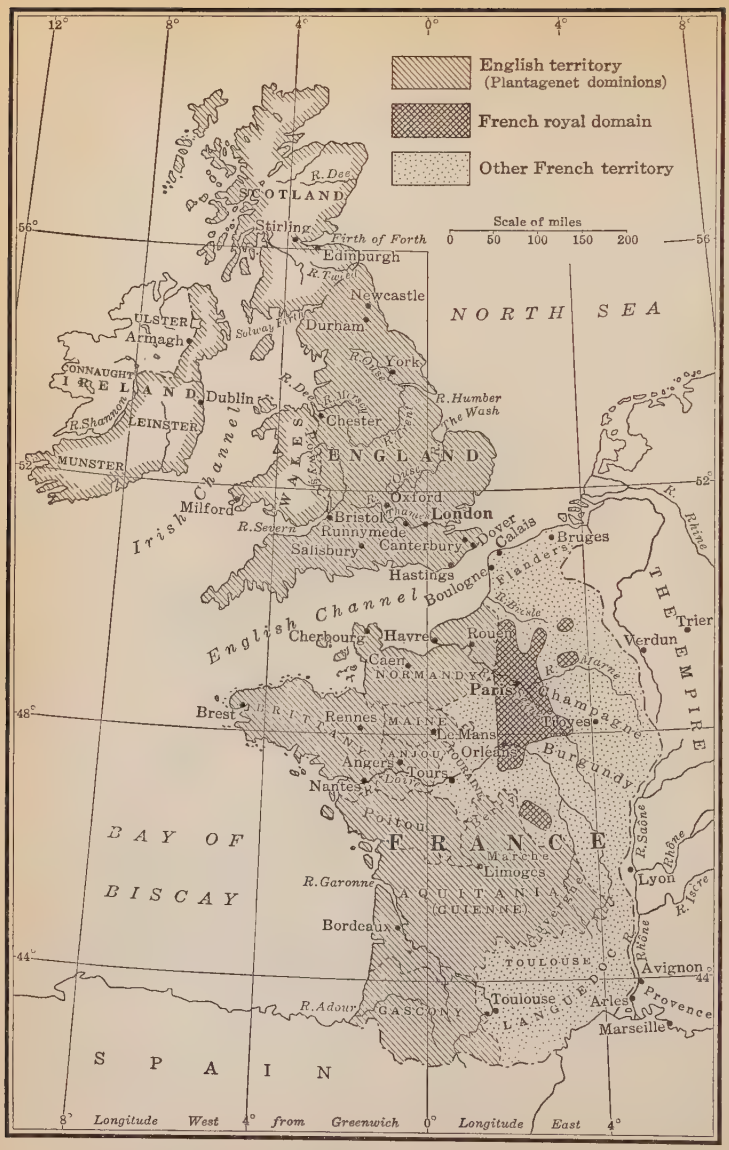
So it came about that the French kings beheld a new State, under an able and energetic ruler, developing within their borders and including more than half the territory over which they were supposed to rule. A few years before Henry II died an ambitious monarch, Philip Augustus, ascended the French throne and made it the chief business of his life to get control of his feudal vassals—above all, the Plantagenets.

255. John loses the French Possessions of his House. Henry's younger son, John, who came to the throne in 1199, bears the reputation of being the most despicable of English kings. He speedily gave Philip Augustus good excuses for seizing a great part of the Plantagenet lands. Philip, as John's feudal lord, summoned him to the French court to answer certain ugly charges of murder and violence. Upon John's refusal Philip

[1] Henry II and his successors are known as the "Plantagenets," owing to the habit that Henry's father, the count of Anjou, had of wearing a sprig of the plant called broom (Latin, *planta genista*) in his helmet.

JOAN OF ARC

This statue, so full of action and spirit, is one of the most popular of all the Joan of Arc statues. It is by an American woman, Anna Vaughan Hyatt, and stands on Riverside Drive, New York



THE PLANTAGENET POSSESSIONS IN ENGLAND AND FRANCE

confiscated almost all the Plantagenet lands, leaving to the English king only the southwest corner of France (Guienne).

256. The Great Charter (1215). The most permanently important event of John's reign was the granting of the Great Charter. When John proposed to lead a new army to France his vassals refused to go, on the ground that they were not pledged to fight for him outside of England. Finally, a number of the barons banded together to force the king to sign a document stating plainly those things which, according to old English custom, a king might not legally do. The Great Charter is perhaps the most famous document in the history of government. The king promises to observe the rights of his vassals, and the vassals in turn agree to observe the rights of their vassals. The towns are not to be oppressed. The merchant is not to be deprived of his goods for small offenses, nor the farmer of his wagon and implements. The king is to impose no tax, besides the three feudal aids,[1] except with the consent of the Great Council of the nation. This was to include the prelates and greater barons and all the king's vassals.

There is no more notable clause in the Charter than that which provides that no *freeman* is to be arrested, or imprisoned, or deprived of his property unless he be immediately sent before a court of his peers for trial. To realize the importance of this we must recollect that in France, down to 1789,—nearly six hundred years later,—the king exercised such unlimited powers that he could order the arrest of anyone he pleased and could imprison him for any length of time without bringing him to trial or even informing him of the nature of his offense.

257. Permanent Importance of the Great Charter. It must be remembered, however, that the barons, who forced the Charter on the king, had their own interests especially in mind. The nobles, churchmen, merchants, and other freemen made up only about a sixth of the population, and the Charter had little

[1] These three regular feudal dues were payments made when the lord knighted his eldest son, gave his eldest daughter in marriage, or had been captured and was waiting to be ransomed.

or nothing to say of serfs, or villains (§§ 265 ff.), who formed the great mass of the English people at that time. They could still be victimized by their masters, the lords of the manor. But in later centuries, when the serfs had become free, the Charter could be appealed to in support of the people in general against attempts of the ruler to oppress them.

III. Beginnings of the English Parliament

258. Origin of the English Parliament. We have seen that the English early found a way to protect themselves against the irresponsible acts of a wayward king. The Great Charter clearly defined the limits to which a king might go and tended to establish the government "on a legal instead of a regal" basis. With the rise of the English Parliament, the people gained a representative body which could effectively defend them and which was destined to become the real governing power in England.

The Great Council of the Norman kings, like the older witenagemot of Saxon times, was a meeting of nobles, bishops, and abbots which the king summoned from time to time to give him advice and aid and to approve serious undertakings. During the reign of John's son, Henry III (1216–1272), a famous Parliament was held where a most important new class of members — the *commons* — were present. In addition to the nobles and prelates, two country gentlemen (knights) from each county and two citizens from each of the more flourishing towns were summoned to attend and take part in the discussions. These were destined to give it its future greatness, because they represented the interests and wishes of the great mass of influential people.

Edward I (1272–1307) definitely adopted this innovation. He doubtless called in the representatives of the towns because the townspeople were becoming rich and he wished to have an opportunity to ask them to make grants of money to meet the expenses of the government. He also wished to obtain the ap-

proval of all the important classes when he determined upon important measures affecting the whole realm.

259. Growth of the Powers of Parliament. The Parliament early took the stand that the king must agree to "redress of grievances" before it would grant him any money. This meant that the king had to promise to remedy any acts of himself or his officials of which Parliament complained, before it would agree to let him levy the taxes. Instead of following the king about and meeting wherever he might happen to be, the Parliament from the time of Edward I began to hold its sessions in the city of Westminster, now a part of London, where it still continues to meet.

Under Edward's successor, Edward II, Parliament solemnly declared (in 1322) that important matters relating to the king and his heirs, the state of the realm and of the people, should be considered and determined upon by the king "with the assent of the prelates, earls and barons, and the commonalty [that is, commons] of the realm." Five years later Parliament showed its power by deposing the inefficient king, Edward II, and declaring his son, Edward III, the rightful ruler of England.

The new king, who embarked on an expensive war with France, needed much money. Consequently he summoned Parliament every year, and, in order to encourage its members to grant him money, gratified Parliament by asking its advice and listening to its petitions. He passed no new law without adding "by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal and of the commons."

260. House of Lords and House of Commons. At this time the separation of the two Houses of Parliament took place, and ever since the "lords spiritual and temporal"—that is, the bishops and higher nobles—have sat by themselves in the House of Lords; and the members of the House of Commons, including the country gentlemen (knights) and the representatives elected by the more important towns, have met by themselves. Parliament thus made up was really a modern, not a medieval,

institution, and we shall hear much of it later. In modern times this form of assembly—two Houses—has been adopted by most of the countries of Europe.

IV. The Hundred Years' War

261. Edward III claims the French Crown. There had been, as we have seen, a long struggle between the French and English kings in the times of the Plantagenets, which had resulted in the English kings' losing all their French territory except the duchy of Guienne (§ 255). This arrangement lasted for many years, but in the time of Edward III the old line of French kings died out, and Edward declared himself the rightful ruler of France because his mother was a sister of the last king of the old line. This led to a long series of conflicts known as the Hundred Years' War (1337–1453).

The fighting was carried on in France, and fortune was first with one side and then with the other. Added to the horrors of war, a terrific plague, known as the Black Death, devastated France, England, and Germany in 1349.

262. Joan of Arc. Finally, help came to the French from a most unexpected quarter. A peasant girl, Joan of Arc, inspired by visions, put on a soldier's armor, mounted a horse, and went to the assistance of the great town of Orleans, which was being besieged by the English. She was accepted as a God-sent champion, and led the French in a victorious attack on the English.

Although the French troops continued to be successful under the leadership of Joan of Arc, the soldiers hated to be led by a girl. She finally fell into the hands of the English, was tried by a court of clergymen as a witch who had won her victories with the help of the devil, and was cruelly burned alive in Rouen in 1431.

263. England loses her French Possessions. Joan of Arc died bravely. Her example had given new courage to the dispirited French, and from this time on the English lost ground rapidly. By 1453 all the English possessions in France except Calais had

passed into the hands of the French king. The Hundred Years' War was over; the great question which had existed since the Norman Conquest, whether English kings could succeed in holding portions of France, was finally settled.

264. England and France establish Strong National Governments. Strangely enough both England and France emerged from the troubles and desolations of the Hundred Years' War stronger than ever before. In both countries the kings had overcome the old menace of feudalism by destroying the influence of the great nobles. The king's government was becoming constantly more powerful. Commerce and industry increased the people's wealth and supplied the monarchs with the revenue necessary to maintain government officials and a sufficient army to keep order throughout their realms. They were no longer forced to rely upon the uncertain fidelity of their vassals. In short, England and France were by this time both becoming modern states.

QUESTIONS

I. Review briefly the settlement of England before the Norman Conquest (§§ 145, 206, 249). Describe the development of Normandy. What policy did William adopt in governing England? What are some of the results of the Norman Conquest?

II. What improvements in the administration of the law were introduced by Henry II? How did the English rulers come to have possessions in northern and southern France (see Table I)? What was the extent of their territory during the time of Henry II? How was this territory regained by France? What were the circumstances leading to the signing of the Great Charter? State some of its important provisions.

III. Give an account of the beginnings of the English Parliament. When were the *commons* first invited to attend? Give an account of the growth of the powers of Parliament. How is Parliament constituted?

IV. What was the reason for, and the general course of, the Hundred Years' War? Tell the story of Joan of Arc. How was the Hundred Years' War brought to a close?

How did England and France begin to establish strong national governments?

CHAPTER XVII

MEDIEVAL LIFE IN COUNTRY AND TOWN

I. The Serfs and the Manor

265. The Vill, or Manor. During the early Middle Ages there were few towns of any importance and by far the greater part of the population of England, Germany, and northern and central France were living in the country, on the great estates belonging to the feudal lords, abbots, and bishops.[1]

These medieval estates were called *vills*, or *manors*, and closely resembled the old Roman villas. The peasants who tilled the soil were called *villains*, a word derived from *vill*. A portion of the estate was reserved by the lord for his own use; the rest of the plowed land was divided among the peasants, usually in long strips, of which each peasant had several, scattered about the manor.

266. Condition of the Serfs. The peasants were generally serfs, who did not own their fields, but could not, on the other hand, be deprived of them so long as they worked for the lord and paid him certain dues. They were bound to the land and went with it when it changed hands (compare the Roman *coloni*, § 170). The serfs were required to till those fields which the lord reserved for himself and to gather in his crops. They might not marry without their lord's permission. Their wives and daughters helped with the indoor work of the manor house. In the women's buildings the women serfs engaged in spinning, weaving, sewing, baking, and brewing, thus producing clothes, food, and drink for the whole community.

We get our clearest ideas of the position of the serfs from the ancient descriptions of manors, which give an exact account of

[1] In Italy and southern France town life was doubtless more general.

what each member of a particular community owed to the lord. For example, we find that the abbot of Peterborough held a manor upon which Hugh Miller and seventeen other serfs, mentioned by name, were required to work for him three days in each week during the whole year, except one week at Christmas, one at Easter, and one at Whitsuntide. Each serf was to give the lord abbot one bushel of wheat and eighteen sheaves of oats, three hens, and one cock yearly, and five eggs at Easter. If he sold his horse for more than ten shillings, he was to give the said abbot fourpence.

There was almost no opportunity for the serfs to better their condition, and life must have gone on for generation after generation in a weary routine. Their existence was not merely monotonous, it was wretched. The food was coarse and there was little variety, as the peasants did not even take pains to raise fresh vegetables. The houses usually had but one room, which was poorly lighted by a single little window, and had no chimney.

267. Use of Money tends to break up Manorial System. The increased use of money in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, which came with the growth of towns and the awakening of trade and manufacture, tended to break up the manor. The habit of trading one thing for another without the employment of money decreased. The serfs began to obtain money by the sale of their products in the markets of neighboring towns. They soon found it more profitable to pay the lord a certain sum instead of working for him, for they could then turn their whole attention to their own farms.

268. Decline of Serfdom. The slow extinction of serfdom in western Europe appears to have begun as early as the twelfth century. A very general emancipation had taken place in France by the end of the thirteenth century, though there were still some serfs in France when the Revolution came in 1789. Germany was far more backward in this respect. We find the peasants revolting against their hard lot in Luther's time, and it was not until the nineteenth century that the serfs were freed in Prussia.

In England the "Black Death" (§ 261), by greatly decreasing the number of laborers, raised the wages of those who survived and created a great demand for labor. In 1381 the peasants rose in revolt against their lot and the heavy taxes levied to carry on the unpopular French wars. They burned some of the manor houses belonging to the nobility and the rich bishops and abbots, and so destroyed the registers in which their obligations were recorded. Although the peasants met with little success, serfdom rapidly disappeared in England. Sixty or seventy years after the Peasants' Revolt the English farming population had in one way or another become free men.

II. The Towns and Guilds

269. Importance of Town Life. It is hardly necessary to point out the importance of town life, which began to increase in western Europe in the twelfth century. The cities had been the centers of Greek and Roman civilization, and in our own time they dominate the life, culture, and business enterprise of the world. Were they to disappear, our whole life, even in the country, would necessarily undergo a profound change and tend to become primitive again like that of the age of Charlemagne.

270. Origin of the Medieval Towns. A great part of the medieval towns appear to have started on the manors of feudal lords or about a monastery or castle. They naturally grew up where there were the best opportunities for employment and trade. The French name for town, *ville*, is derived from "vill," the manor, or *villa*, and we use this old Roman word when we call a town Jackson*ville* or Harris*ville*. As the little towns often needed protection against attack, they were usually surrounded by a high stone wall. The streets were mere alleys over which the jutting stories of the houses almost met. There were no amphitheaters or public baths as in the Roman cities.

271. Townsmen originally Serfs. All towns outside of Italy were small in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, and had little commerce as yet with the outside world. They produced almost

A Castle with a Village below it

A village was pretty sure to grow up near the castle of a powerful lord and might gradually become a large town

STREET IN QUIMPER, FRANCE

None of the streets in even the oldest European towns look just as they did in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, but here and there, as in this town of Brittany, one can still get some idea of the narrow, cramped streets and overhanging houses and the beautiful cathedral crowded in among them

all that their inhabitants needed except the farm products which came from the neighboring country. The townspeople were scarcely more than serfs, in spite of the fact that they lived within a wall and were traders and artisans instead of farmers. They had to pay irritating dues to their lord just as if they still formed a farming community.

With the increase of trade came the longing for greater freedom. When new and attractive commodities began to be brought from southern Europe and the Orient, the people of the towns began to make things which they could exchange at some neighboring fair for the products of distant lands. But no sooner did the townsmen begin to develop their business than they found themselves hindered by the old dues and exactions which the lords were wont to demand of their serfs.

Consequently, during the twelfth century there were many insurrections of the towns against their lords, and there was a general demand that the lords should grant the townsmen *charters*, or written contracts, in which the rights of both parties should be definitely stated.

272. The Guilds. The tradesmen in the medieval towns were at once manufacturers and merchants; that is, they made, as well as sold, the articles which they kept in their shops. Those who belonged to a particular trade—the bakers, the butchers, the sword-makers, the armorers, etc.—formed unions or guilds to protect their special interests. The guilds all had the same object—to prevent anyone from practicing a trade who had not been duly admitted to the union.

A young man had to spend several years in learning his trade. During this time he lived in the house of a *master workman* as an *apprentice*, but received no wages. He then became a *journeyman* and was paid wages, although he was still allowed to work only for master workmen and not directly for himself. The journeyman might finally become a master if he had proper skill and money enough to buy the business. A simple trade might be learned in three years, but to become a goldsmith one must be an apprentice for ten years.

The way in which each trade was to be practiced was carefully regulated, as well as the working hours. The guilds discouraged invention and maintained uniform standards everywhere. However, had it not been for these unions the defenseless, isolated workmen, but recently emancipated from serfdom, would have found it impossible to secure freedom from the feudal lords who had formerly been their masters.

III. Business in the Later Middle Ages

273. Revival of Trade. The chief reason for the growth and prosperity of the towns was a great development of trade throughout western Europe. Commerce had pretty well disappeared amid the general disorder following the German invasions, and the great highways from Persia to Britain had fallen apart when independent nobles and isolated communities took the place of a world empire. So long as the people on the manor produced only what was needed for the estate there was nothing to send abroad to exchange for luxuries. But when merchants began to come with tempting articles, the members of a community were encouraged to produce more goods than they needed for themselves, in order to have something to sell or exchange for the attractive wares coming from a distance.

274. The Italian Merchants. The Italian merchants (§ 246) had been more enterprising than business men farther north. They had established trading stations in the East and had also bought goods directly from the caravans which brought to the Mediterranean shores the products of Arabia, Persia, India, and the Spice Islands.

The people of Europe were delighted by the luxuries of the East—the rich fabrics, oriental carpets, precious stones, perfumes, drugs, silks, and porcelains from China, spices from India, and cotton from Egypt. Venice introduced the silk industry and the manufacture of those glass articles which the traveler may still buy in the Venetian shops. The West learned how to make silk and velvet as well as light cotton and linen fabrics.

275. Important Commercial Towns. The Northern merchants dealt mainly with Venice and brought their wares across the Brenner Pass and down the Rhine, or sent them around by sea. By the thirteenth century important centers of trade had grown up, some of which are still great commercial towns, such as Hamburg and Bremen.

276. Question of Interest on Loans. It was not easy to carry on business on a large scale, for there was little money, and money greatly encourages buying and selling. Manufacturers were expected to charge a "just price" for their goods; that is, only what was necessary to make a small profit. There was, moreover, a strong prejudice against taking interest. Money was believed to be a dead and sterile thing, and no one had a right to demand any return for lending it. Interest was considered wicked, since it was exacted by those who took advantage of the embarrassments of others. "Usury," as the taking of even the most moderate and reasonable rate of interest was then called, was strenuously forbidden by the laws of the Church. So money-lending, which is necessary to all great commercial and industrial undertakings, was left to the Jews, who were not required to obey the rules established by the Christian Church for its own members.

277. The Jews as Money-Lenders. This unfortunate people played a most important part in the economic development of Europe, but they were terribly maltreated by the Christians, who held them guilty of the supreme crime of putting Christ to death. The active persecution of the Jews did not, however, become common before the thirteenth century, when they first began to be required to wear a peculiar cap, or badge, which made them easily recognized and exposed them to constant insult. Later they were sometimes required to live in a certain quarter of the city, called the Jewry, or Ghetto. As they were excluded from the guilds, they not unnaturally turned to the business of money-lending, which no Christian might practice. Undoubtedly this occupation had much to do with causing their unpopularity. The kings permitted them to make loans, often

at a most exorbitant rate; Philip Augustus allowed them to exact 46 per cent, but reserved the right to extort their gains from them when the royal treasury was empty. In England the usual rate was a penny a pound for each week.

278. Increasing Importance of Business Men. The increasing wealth of the merchants could not fail to raise them to a position of importance which earlier tradesmen had not enjoyed. They began to build fine houses and to buy the various comforts and luxuries which were finding their way into western Europe. They wanted their sons to be educated, and so it came about that other people besides clergymen began to learn how to read and write. As early as the fourteenth century many of the books appear to have been written with a view to meeting the tastes and needs of the business class. The rise of the business class alongside the older orders of the clergy and nobility is one of the most momentous changes of the thirteenth century.

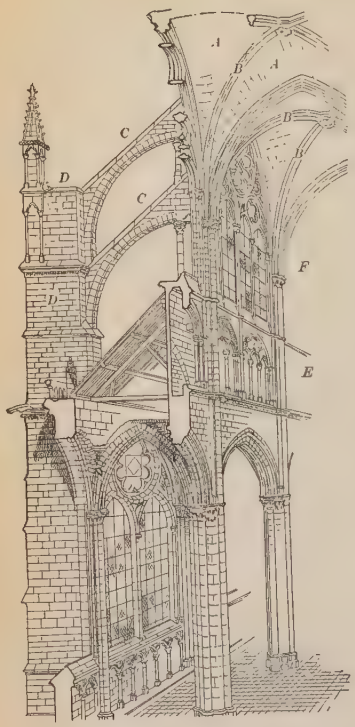
IV. Gothic Architecture

279. Medieval Buildings. Almost all the medieval buildings in the ancient towns of Europe have disappeared. The stone town walls have been removed, and their place has often been taken by broad and handsome avenues. The old houses have been torn down in order to widen and straighten the streets and permit the construction of modern dwellings. Only the churches remain, but these fill the beholder with wonder and admiration.

It seems impossible that the cities of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, which were neither very large nor very rich, could possibly find money enough to pay for these churches. No modern buildings equal the greatest of them in beauty and grandeur, and they are the most striking memorial of the religious spirit and the town pride of the Middle Ages.

The construction of a cathedral sometimes extended over several centuries, and much of the money for it must have been gathered penny by penny. It should be remembered that everybody belonged in those days to the one great Catholic Church,

Interior of Exeter Cathedral (Early Fourteenth Century)



The architects of the twelfth century discovered that the concave stone ceiling, which is known as the *vaulting* (*A*), could be supported by the ribs (*B*). These could in turn be brought together and supported on top of the pillars, which rested on the floor of the church. It was clear, however, that the pillars and ribs would be pushed over by the weight and outward "thrust" of the heavy stone vaulting if they were not firmly braced from the outside. The Gothic architects, instead of erecting the old-fashioned heavy walls to insure this support, resorted to buttresses (*D*), which they built quite outside the church and connected by means of "flying" buttresses (*C*, *C*) with the points where the pillars and ribs had the greatest tendency to push outward. In this way a vaulted stone ceiling could be supported without the use of heavy walls.

CROSS SECTION OF AMIENS CATHEDRAL

It will be noticed that there is a row of rather low windows opening under the roof of the aisle. These constitute the so-called *triforium* (*E*). Above them is the clerestory (*F*), the windows of which open between the flying buttresses. So it came about that the walls of a Gothic church were in fact mainly windows. The Egyptians were the first to invent the clerestory. The inappropriate name "Gothic" was given to the beautiful churches of the North by Italian architects of the sixteenth century, who did not like them and preferred to build in the style of the ancient Romans. The Italians, with their "classical" tastes, assumed that only German barbarians—whom they carelessly and ignorantly called Goths—could admire a Gothic cathedral

so that the building of a new church was a matter of interest to the whole community—to men of every rank, from the bishop himself to the workman and the peasant.

280. The Romanesque Style. Up to the twelfth century churches were built in what is called the *Romanesque*, or Roman-like, style, so named because they resembled the solid old buildings of the Romans. These Romanesque churches had stone ceilings, and it was necessary to make the walls very thick and solid to support them. There was a main aisle in the center, called the *nave*, and a narrower aisle on each side, separated from the nave by massive stone pillars, which helped to hold up the heavy ceiling. These pillars were connected by round arches of stone above them, and the tops of the smallish windows were round. So the *round* arches form one of the striking features of the Romanesque style that distinguish it from the Gothic style, which followed it. The windows had to be small in order that the walls should not be weakened.

281. The Gothic Style. The architects of France in the twelfth century invented a new and wonderful method of constructing churches and other buildings which enabled them to do away with the heavy walls and put high, wide, graceful windows in their place. This new style of architecture is known as the *Gothic*, and its underlying principles can readily be understood from a little study of the accompanying diagram, which shows how a Gothic cathedral is supported not by heavy walls but by *buttresses*. This ingenious use of buttresses instead of walls is the fundamental principle of Gothic architecture. It was discovered for the first time by the architects in the medieval towns and was apparently quite unknown to earlier builders.

The wall, no longer essential for supporting the ceiling, was used only to inclose the building, and windows could be made as high and wide as pleased the architect. By the use of *pointed* instead of *round* arches it was possible to give great variety to the windows and vaulting. So pointed arches came into general use, and the Gothic is on this account often called the "pointed"

style, although the use of the ribs and buttresses, not the pointed arch, is the chief characteristic of this form of architecture.

The light from the huge windows (sometimes fifty feet high) would have been too intense had it not been softened by the stained glass, set in exquisite stone tracery. The stained glass of the medieval cathedral, especially in France, where the glass workers brought their art to the greatest perfection, was one of its chief glories.

In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries Gothic buildings other than churches were built. The most striking and important of these were the guild halls, or clubhouses, erected by the rich corporations of merchants, and the town halls of important cities. But the Gothic style has always seemed especially appropriate for churches.

QUESTIONS

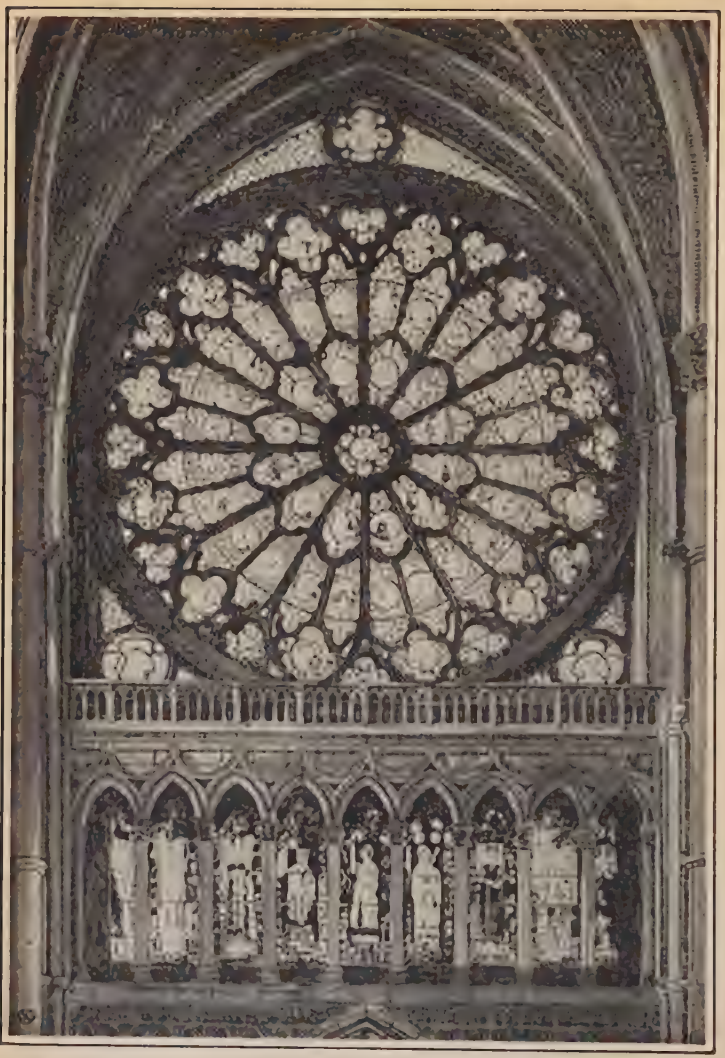
I. What led to the disappearance of town life? Where and how did most of the people live? Describe a medieval manor. What were the services that a serf owed his master? How did the use of money hasten the decline of serfdom?

II. How did the medieval towns grow up? Compare the medieval town with Greek and Roman cities. What class of people originally settled in the towns? What is the origin of the town charter? Describe the medieval guilds.

III. What led to the development of town life in the later Middle Ages? Describe the revival of commerce. What were some of the obstacles to business? What was the medieval attitude toward taking interest for money? What new social class grew up as a result of the development of business?

IV. What are the chief characteristics of the Romanesque style? What discoveries made the Gothic style possible? Can you find any examples of Romanesque or Gothic architecture in your neighborhood?

Façade of the Cathedral at Reims (Thirteenth Century)



Rose Window of Reims Cathedral, nearly Forty Feet in Diameter, from the Inside

CHAPTER XVIII

BOOKS AND SCIENCE IN THE MIDDLE AGES

I. How the Modern Languages Originated

282. General Use of Latin in the Middle Ages. All through the Middle Ages the language of the Roman Empire—Latin—continued to be used. State papers, treaties, and law documents were all drawn up in Latin. The ability of every educated person to make use of Latin, as well as of his native tongue, was a great advantage at a time when there were many obstacles to intercourse among the various nations. It helps to explain, for example, the remarkable way in which the Pope kept in touch with all the clergymen of Western Christendom, and the ease with which students, friars, and merchants could wander from one country to another. There is no more interesting or important revolution than that by which the languages of the people in the various European countries gradually pushed aside the ancient tongue and took its place, so that even scholars scarcely ever think now of writing books in Latin.

In order to understand how it came about that two languages, the Latin and the native speech, were both commonly used in all the countries of western Europe all through the Middle Ages, we must glance at the origin of the modern languages. These all fall into two quite distinct groups, the *Germanic* and the *Romance*.

283. The Germanic Languages. Those German peoples who had continued to live *outside* the Roman Empire naturally clung to the language which they and their forefathers had always used. From the various languages used by the German barbarians modern English, Dutch, German, Swedish, Norwegian, and Danish are largely derived.

284. The Romance Languages. The second group of languages developed *within* the territory which had formed a part of the Roman Empire, and includes modern French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese. These Romance languages were all derived from the *spoken* Latin, employed by the soldiers, merchants, and people at large. This differed considerably from the *written* Latin, which was used, for example, by Cicero and Cæsar. It was undoubtedly much simpler in its grammar, and varied a good deal in different regions; a Gaul, for instance, could not pronounce the words like a Roman. Moreover, in conversation people did not always use the same words as those employed in books. As time went on, the spoken language diverged farther and farther from the written. Yet several centuries elapsed after Charlemagne's time before much was written in this conversational language.

285. Ancient English, or Anglo-Saxon. The oldest form of English is called Anglo-Saxon, and is so different from our way of talking nowadays that it seems like a foreign tongue. This old form of our language prevailed until after the Norman Conquest.

Here is an example: "Here on thissum geare Willelm cyng geaf Rodberde eorle thone eorldom on Northymbraland. Da komon tha landes menn togeanes him & hine ofslogen, & ix hund manna mid him." In modern English this reads: "In this year King William gave the Earl Robert the earldom of Northumberland. Then came the men of the country against him and slew him, and nine hundred men with him."

By the middle of the thirteenth century, two hundred years after the Norman Conquest, English begins to look somewhat familiar. Chaucer (about 1340–1400) was the first great English writer whose works are now read with pleasure, although one is sometimes puzzled by his spelling and by certain words which are no longer used. This is the way one of his tales opens:

> A poure wydow somdel stope in age,
> Was whilom dwellyng in a narwe cotage,
> Bisyde a grove, stondyng in a dale.

286. The French Language. In the Middle Ages, however, French, not English, was the most important of the national languages of western Europe. In France a vast literature was produced in the language of the people, during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, which profoundly affected the books written in Italy, Spain, Germany, and England.

Charlemagne, his general Roland, and King Arthur (a mythical ruler of Britain), with the famous knights and ladies of his court, became the chief heroes of medieval poetry and romance. The most marvelous exploits were attributed to these leaders and their knights.

II. The Troubadours and Chivalry

287. Provençal and the Troubadours. In France two quite different languages had developed from the spoken Latin. To the north, French was spoken; to the south, Provençal. The beautiful songs of the *troubadours*, which were the glory of the Provençal tongue, reveal a gay and polished society at the courts of the numerous feudal princes. The troubadours traveled from court to court, not only in France but north into Germany and south into Italy, carrying with them the southern French poetry and customs. We have few examples of Provençal before the year 1100, but from that time on, for two centuries, countless songs were written.

288. The Ideals of Knighthood and Chivalry. The knights play the chief rôle in all the medieval romances; and since many of the troubadours belonged to the knightly class, they naturally have much to say of it in their songs. When the youth of good family had been carefully trained to ride his horse, use his sword, and manage his hawk in the hunt, he was made a *knight* by a ceremony in which the Church took part, although the knighthood was actually conferred by an older knight.

According to the rules of chivalry, the knight must, in the first place, be a Christian and must obey and defend the Church on all occasions. He must defend the helpless wherever he

might find them. He must fight the infidel Mohammedans ceaselessly, pitilessly, and never give way before the enemy. He must be generous, and give freely and ungrudgingly to the needy. He must be faithful to his lady and be ready to defend her and her honor at all costs. Everywhere he must be the champion of the right against injustice and oppression.

III. Medieval Knowledge

289. Medieval Popular Science. There were no good histories in our sense of the word. Of what we should call scientific books, for the people there were practically none. It is true that there was a kind of encyclopedia in verse which gave a great deal of misinformation about things in general. Everyone continued to believe, as the Greeks and Romans had done, in strange animals like the unicorn, the dragon, and the phœnix, and in still stranger habits of real animals. The most improbable things were repeated from generation to generation without its occurring to anyone to inquire whether there was any truth in them.

From the Roman and early Christian writers, the Middle Ages got the idea of strange races of men and manlike creatures of various kinds. We find the following in an encyclopedia of the thirteenth century: "Satyrs be somewhat like men, and have crooked noses, and horns in the forehead, and are like to goats in their feet. . . . There be wonderful creatures that have heads as hounds, and seem beasts rather than men; and some be called Cyclops, and have that name because each of them hath but one eye, and that in the middle of the forehead; and some be all headless and noseless and their eyes be in the shoulders; and some have plain faces without nostrils, and the lower lips of them stretch so that they veil therewith their faces when they be in the heat of the sun."

Two old subjects of study were revived, and received great attention in Europe from the thirteenth century onward until recent times. These were *astrology* and *alchemy*.

290. Astrology. Astrology (§ 39) was based on the belief that the planets influence the make-up of men and consequently their fate. Following an idea of the Greek philosophers, especially Aristotle, it was believed that all things were compounded of "the four elements"—earth, air, fire, and water. Each person was a particular mixture of these four elements, and the position of the planets at the time of his birth was supposed to influence his mixture, or "temperament"; that is to say, his character.

By knowing a person's temperament one could judge what he ought to do in order to be successful in life, and what he should avoid. For example, if one were born under the influence of Venus he should be on his guard against violent love and should choose for a trade something connected with dress or adornment; if he were born under Mars (named for the god of war) he might make armor or horseshoes or become a soldier. Many common words are really astrological terms, such as "ill-starred," "disastrous," "jovial," "saturnine," "mercurial" (derived from the names of the planets). Astrology was taught in the universities, because it was supposed to be necessary for physicians to know how to choose times when the stars were favorable for particular kinds of medical treatment.

291. Alchemy. The alchemists experimented in their laboratories with the hope of finding some way of turning lead and copper into gold and silver. They tried also to discover a sovereign remedy, or elixir, as they called it, which would prolong life. Even if they did not succeed in their chief aim, they learned a great deal incidentally, and finally our modern chemistry emerged from alchemy. Like astrology, alchemy goes back to ancient times; for the people of the thirteenth century got most of their ideas through the Mohammedans, who had in turn got theirs from the Greek books on the subjects.

292. Origin of the Universities. All European countries now have excellent schools, colleges, and universities. These had their beginning in the later Middle Ages. With the incoming of the barbarian Germans and the break-up of the Roman Empire education largely disappeared, and for hundreds of

years there was nothing in western Europe, outside of Italy and Spain, corresponding to our universities and colleges.

But by the end of the twelfth century the teachers had become so numerous in Paris that they formed a union, or guild. This union of professors was called by the usual name for corporations in the Middle Ages, *universitas*; hence our word "university." The king and the Pope both favored the university and granted the teachers and students many of the privileges of the clergy, a class to which they were regarded as belonging because learning had for so many centuries been confined to the clergy.

About the time that we find the beginnings of a university, or guild of professors, at Paris, another great institution of learning was growing up at Bologna. Here the chief attention was given not to theology, as at Paris, but to the study of the law,—both Roman and Church law (called the *canon* law, from the Greek word meaning "rule").

The University of Oxford was founded during the reign of Henry II, probably by English students and masters who had become discontented at Paris. The University of Cambridge, as well as numerous universities in France, Italy, and Spain, was founded in the thirteenth century. The German universities were established much later, most of them in the latter half of the fourteenth century and in the fifteenth.

293. The Academic Degree. When, after some years of study, a student was examined by the professors, he was, if successful, admitted to the teachers' guild and became a *master* himself. What we call a *degree* today was originally, in the medieval universities, nothing more than the right to teach; but in the thirteenth century many who did not care to become professors in our sense of the word began to desire the honorable title of *master* or *doctor* (which is only the Latin word for "teacher").

There were at first no university buildings. There was no need for laboratories, for there was no experimentation carried on in the universities. All that was required was a copy of the textbook. This the lecturer explained sentence by sentence.

294. Veneration for Aristotle. The most striking peculiarity of the instruction in the medieval university was the reverence paid to Aristotle (§ 102). Most of the courses of lectures were devoted to the explanation of some one of his numerous books. The teachers of the thirteenth century were so fascinated by his logic and astonished at his learning, that the great theologians of the time, Albertus Magnus (d. 1280) and Thomas Aquinas (d. 1274), devoted much time to preparing elaborate commentaries upon all his works. He was called "The Philosopher"; and so fully were scholars convinced that it had pleased God to permit Aristotle to say the last word upon each and every branch of knowledge that they humbly accepted him, along with the Bible, as one of their unquestioned authorities.

DANTE

295. Scholasticism. The name *scholasticism* is commonly given to the beliefs and method of discussion of the medieval professors. To those who later outgrew the fondness for logic and the supreme respect for Aristotle, scholasticism, with its neglect of Greek and Roman literature, came to seem a dry and profitless form of education. The scholastic training in logic, if it did not increase the sum of human knowledge, accustomed the student to make careful distinctions and to present his arguments in an orderly way.

No attention was given in the medieval universities to the great subject of history, nor was Greek taught. Latin had to be learned in order to carry on the work at all, but little time was given to the literature of the Romans.

296. Dante's Desertion of Latin. The new modern languages were regarded as unworthy of consideration in the universities, for the wonderful books that make up the literature of England, France, Germany, Italy, and Spain were not yet written. The first author whose works are still greatly admired to desert Latin and give preference to his own mother tongue was Dante (d. 1321). He wrote his immortal poem "The Divine Comedy" in Italian. He was not a churchman or monk, as were most of the medieval scholars. He believed that there were many intelligent laymen who, although they found no time in their busy lives to master Latin, would nevertheless be eager to read his poems and the treatises he wrote for their benefit.

297. Roger Bacon advocates the Study of Natural Science. Even in the thirteenth century there were a few scholars who criticized the habit of relying upon Aristotle for all knowledge. The most distinguished faultfinder was Roger Bacon, an English Franciscan monk (d. about 1294), who declared that even if Aristotle was very wise, he had only planted the tree of knowledge, and that this had "not as yet put forth all its branches nor produced all its fruits." "If we could continue to live for endless centuries, we mortals could never hope to reach full and complete knowledge of all the things which are to be known."

298. Bacon foresees Great Inventions. Bacon declared that if men would only study common things instead of reading the books of the ancients, science could outdo the wonders which magicians of his day claimed to perform. He said that in time men would be able to fly, would have carriages which needed no horses to draw them, and ships which would move swiftly without oars, and that bridges could be built without piers to support them.

All this and much more has come true, but inventors and modern scientists owe little to the books which the scholastic philosophers relied upon. Although the Greek philosophers devoted considerable attention to natural science, they were not much inclined to make long and careful experiments or to invent anything like the microscope or telescope to help them.

Aristotle thought that the sun and all the stars revolved about the earth and that the heavenly bodies were perfect and unchangeable. He believed that heavy bodies fell faster than light ones and that all earthly things were made of the four elements —earth, air, water, and fire. The Greeks and Romans knew nothing of the compass, or gunpowder, or the printing-press, or the uses to which steam can be put. Indeed, they had scarcely anything that we should call a machine.

The progress of knowledge and invention in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries will be taken up in the next chapter.

QUESTIONS

I. Why was Latin used by the educated class in the Middle Ages? What is the origin of the Germanic languages? of the Romance languages? How did the written and spoken languages come to differ? When does English appear sufficiently modern for us to read it easily?

II. Who were the troubadours? What were some of the ideals of this period expressed in their songs? Describe the medieval knight.

III. Why did the people of the Middle Ages know little of the past? Of what did their science consist? What was the importance of astrology? Define alchemy. To what modern subject is it related?

What is the original meaning of the word "university"? Give the names of some of the early universities. What is the origin of the academic degrees? What subjects were studied in the medieval universities? Why was Aristotle regarded with such veneration? What is scholasticism? Why did Roger Bacon criticize the study of Aristotle? What did he propose should take its place?

BOOK III. BEGINNINGS OF OUR MODERN WORLD

CHAPTER XIX

DISCOVERIES OF OLD THINGS AND NEW

I. The Italian Cities and the Renaissance

299. Man's Growth in Knowledge and Skill. The object of this history is to show how mankind has gained the degree of civilization and knowledge which we now possess. The process has been a very slow one, which we have now traced from the Stone Age down to a few hundred years ago. Although we are naturally interested chiefly in the events and problems of our own day, we cannot rightly understand these without seeing how they came about; for the present is an outgrowth of the long, long past. What we call "modern times" is a very short period compared with that which separates Roger Bacon from Menes I.

"Modern times" did not begin at any particular date, but emerged gradually from what we have come to think of as "medieval times." It could not be otherwise, because mankind cannot change all its habits suddenly. We always tend to go on in the same old ruts of belief and custom, even though improvements are made here and there. Man's first steps were naturally slowest and most halting; but as he learned more, his progress became easier, so that the changes of each century since 1300 have been more rapid and surprising than those that preceded them. Doubtless many old mistaken views have still to be dispelled, and there are still endless new things to be discovered and new inventions to be made.

300. Discoveries in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries. Although in the thirteenth century many books were written in the modern languages, learned men still clung to Latin and relied largely, for their information, on Aristotle in poor Latin translations. During the next two hundred years a knowledge of Greek was revived, and the profound and beautiful books which the Greeks had written—long forgotten—now came to light again and were studied with enthusiasm, especially the works of Plato. This study of the Greek books and a more careful study of the Roman books considerably increased the knowledge of the time. Along with this revival of forgotten learning went important discoveries of things unknown to the Greeks and Romans.

Printing was invented, and this has made it possible for everyone, not merely the few, to read and learn. The use of the compass and other improvements in navigation encouraged the exploration of the earth and brought about the discovery of forgotten regions once known to the Romans, and of a new world beyond the Atlantic. The discovery of gunpowder put an end to bows and arrows, battered down feudal castles, and opened the way for the use of explosives, which have now made war so terrible that it would seem as if it could not be tolerated much longer.

There were other discoveries of this period, such as the use of our familiar numerals—1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 0—and of the lens, which underlie the development of our modern science, with its microscopes and telescopes and precise calculations. It was in the Italian cities that the new learning and knowledge especially flourished and art made great progress. So we shall turn first to Italy and her scholars and artists.

301. The Renaissance. The progress was indeed so striking during this period that a special name has been given it—the *Renaissance*,[1] or new birth. It was in Italy that scholars, beginning with Petrarch, began to build up the knowledge and

[1] This word, originally French, has come into such common use that it is quite permissible to pronounce it as if it were English—re-nā'sens.

appreciation of the great works of the Greeks and Romans. Remarkable advance was made in architecture, painting, and sculpture, so that today Italy is the chief art center of the world. Visitors still flock to Venice, Florence, and Rome to see the palaces, churches, and fine collections of painting and sculpture of the Renaissance period.

302. The Italian City-States. The Italian towns, like those of ancient Greece, were each a little state with its own peculiar life and institutions. Some of them, like Rome, Milan, and Pisa, had been important in Roman times; others, like Venice, Florence, and Genoa, did not become conspicuous until the time of the Crusades.

The map of Italy at the beginning of the fourteenth century was divided into three zones. To the south lay the kingdom of Naples. Then came the states of the Church, extending diagonally across the peninsula. To the north and west lay the group of city-states to which we now turn our attention.

303. Venice and its Relations with the East. Of these city-states none was more celebrated than Venice, which in the history of Europe ranks in importance with Paris and London. This singular town was built upon a group of sandy islets lying in the Adriatic Sea, about two miles from the mainland. It was protected from the waves by a long, narrow sand bar similar to those which fringe the Atlantic coast from New Jersey southward. Even before the Crusades, Venice had begun to engage in foreign trade. Its enterprises carried its merchants eastward, and it early acquired possessions across the Adriatic and in the Orient. It also extended its sway over a considerable part of the Italian mainland to the west of the city.

About the year 1400 Venice reached the height of its prosperity. It had a population of two hundred thousand, which was very large for those days. It had three hundred seagoing vessels, which went to and fro in the Mediterranean, carrying wares between the East and the West. But when Constantinople fell into the hands of the Turks (1453), and when, later, the route to India by sea was discovered, Venice could not maintain

St. Peter's and the Vatican Palace

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CATHEDRAL AND BELL TOWER IN THE CITY OF FLORENCE

control of the trade with the East; and while it remained an important city, it no longer enjoyed its former influence and power.

304. Rôle of the Italian Despots. Not only were the other Italian towns fighting one another most of the time, but their government was often in the hands of *despots*, who got control of the towns and managed them in the interest of themselves, their relatives, and their friends. There are many stories of the incredible ferocity exhibited by the Italian despots of the Renaissance. But many of the despots found it to their interest to govern well, and even to give dignity to their rule by encouraging artists and men of letters.

305. Florence. The history of Florence differs in many ways from that of Venice and the despotisms of which Milan was an example. Florence was a republic, and all classes claimed the right to interest themselves in the government. This led to constant changes in the constitution and to frequent struggles between the different political parties. When one party got the upper hand, it generally expelled its chief opponents from the city. Exile was a terrible punishment to a Florentine, for Florence was not merely his native city—it was his *country*, and loved and honored as such.

306. The Medici; Lorenzo the Magnificent. By the middle of the fifteenth century Florence had come under the control of the great family of the Medici, whose members played the rôle of very enlightened political bosses. By secretly controlling the choice of city officials they governed without letting it be suspected that the people had lost their power. The most distinguished member of the house of Medici was Lorenzo the Magnificent (d. 1492); under his rule Florence reached the height of its glory in art and literature.

As one wanders about Florence today he is impressed with the contradictions of the Renaissance period. The streets are lined with the palaces of the noble families to whose rivalries much of the continual disturbance was due. The lower stories of these buildings are constructed of great stones, like fortresses, and their windows are barred like those of a prison; yet within

they were often furnished with the greatest taste and luxury. For in spite of the disorder, against which the rich protected themselves by making their houses half strongholds, the beautiful churches, the noble public buildings, and the works of art which now fill the Florentine museums indicate that mankind has never, perhaps, reached a higher degree of taste and skill in the arts of peace than did the citizens of Florence under the rule of the despots and amid the turmoil of their restless town.

307. Rome, the Capital of the Popes. During the period in which Venice and Florence became leaders in wealth and refinement, Rome, the capital of the popes, underwent a great change. Conditions had long been highly unfavorable for improving the city. For over seventy years (1305–1377) the popes had been Frenchmen, and had deserted Rome to live on the boundaries of France, at Avignon. Then there had followed a long dispute, lasting for forty years, between two lines of rival popes, one of which wanted to live in Avignon, the other in Rome. This "Great Schism" lasted from 1378 to 1417. But by the time of Lorenzo the Magnificent the popes were again Italians, who turned their attention to reviving the ancient glory of Rome. Architects and painters and writers were called in and encouraged to erect and adorn magnificent buildings and to collect a great and still-famous library in the palace of the Vatican.

308. St. Peter's and the Vatican. The old church of St. Peter's no longer satisfied the aspirations of the popes. It was gradually torn down, and the present church, with its vast dome and imposing approach, took its place. The popes' new palace, called the Vatican, was gradually constructed to the right of St. Peter's. It has innumerable rooms,—great and small,—some of them, such as the famous Sistine Chapel, adorned by the most celebrated Italian painters of the Renaissance; others are filled with ancient statuary.

Venice, Florence, Rome, and other Italian cities still contain, almost perfectly preserved, many of the finest of the buildings, paintings, and monuments which belong to the period we have been discussing.

STATUE OF COLLEONI. (BY VERROCCHIO)

This magnificent bronze statue, cast in 1496, stands in Venice. It represents the commander in chief of the Venetian army. A copy of this famous figure is to be seen in the city of Newark, New Jersey

SISTINE CHAPEL

This is one of the most famous rooms in the Vatican Palace and contains Michelangelo's most celebrated frescoes

II. The Art of the Renaissance

309. Development of Art in Italy. We have already described briefly the work of the medieval architects and artists who built and decorated the Gothic cathedrals. But in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries art developed in a most astonishing manner in Italy and set new standards for all of western Europe.

Florence was the great center of artistic activity during the fifteenth century. The greatest sculptors and almost all the most famous painters and architects of the time either were natives of Florence or did their best work in that city.[1] With the death of Lorenzo the Magnificent, the preëminence of Florence as an art center passed to Rome, which was fast becoming one of the great capitals of Europe.

310. Height of Renaissance Art—Da Vinci, Michelangelo, Raphael. During the sixteenth century the art of the Renaissance reached its highest development. Among all the great artists of this period three stand out prominently—Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo, and Raphael. The first two achieved distinction in the three arts of architecture, sculpture, and painting. It is impossible to give in a few lines any idea of the beauty of the work of these great geniuses. Raphael and Michelangelo left behind them so many magnificent frescoes and paintings, and Michelangelo so many statues as well, that it is easy to appreciate their importance. Leonardo, on the other hand, left but little completed work. His influence on the art of his time, which was probably greater than that of either of the others, came from his application of new methods.

While Florence could no longer boast of being the art center of Italy, it still produced great painters, among whom Andrea del Sarto may be especially mentioned. In the sixteenth cen-

[1] Opposite the cathedral at Florence stands the ancient baptistery. Its northern bronze doors, with ten scenes from the Bible, surrounded by a very lovely border of foliage, birds, and animals, were completed by Lorenzo Ghiberti in 1452, after many years of labor. Michelangelo declared them worthy to be the gates of heaven.

tury there arose at Venice a school of painters of great ability. Among these was the celebrated Titian, as well as Paul Veronese, who was especially fond of depicting the pomp and splendor of Venetian life. The Venetian pictures are distinguished by their glowing color.

311. Painting in Northern Europe. It was natural that artists from the Northern countries should be attracted by the renown of the Italian masters and, after learning all that Italy could teach them, should return home to practice their art in their own particular fashion. Albrecht Dürer and Hans Holbein the Younger, in Germany, vied with even Raphael and Michelangelo in the mastery of their art.

III. The Work of the Humanists; the Invention of Printing

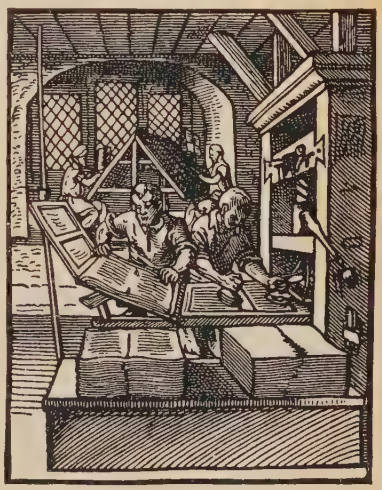
312. Petrarch's Interest in Greek. It was an Italian, Petrarch (1304–1374), who first stirred a new enthusiasm for the writings of the Romans (whom the Italians regarded as their glorious ancestors) and who tried to revive a study of Greek. Although the medieval professors paid the greatest respect to the Greek philosopher Aristotle and made Latin translations of his works the basis of the college course, very few of them could read any Greek, and none of them knew much about Homer or Plato or the Greek tragedians and historians. In the fourteenth century Petrarch set the example in Italy of carefully collecting all the writings of the Romans, which he greatly admired. He made an unsuccessful effort to learn Greek, for he found that Cicero and other Roman writers were constantly referring with enthusiasm to the Greek books to which they owed so much (§ 161).

Twenty years after his death a learned Greek prelate from Constantinople, named Chrysoloras, came to Florence, where he found pupils eager to learn his language so that they could read the Greek books. Soon Italian scholars were going to Constantinople to carry on their studies, just as the Romans in Cicero's time had gone to Athens. They brought back copies of all the

PAGE FROM A BOOK OF HOURS, FIFTEENTH CENTURY
(ORIGINAL SIZE)

ancient writers that they could find, and by 1430 Greek books were once more known in the West, after a thousand years of neglect.

313. The Humanists. In this way western Europe *caught up with ancient times*. Scholars could once more know all that the Greeks and Romans had known, and could read in the original Greek the works of Homer, Sophocles, Herodotus, Plato, Aristotle, and other philosophers, historians, and tragedians. Those who devoted their lives to a study of the literature of Greece and Rome were called *Humanists*. The name is derived from the Latin word *humanitas*, which means "culture." In time the colleges gave up the exclusive study of Aristotle and substituted a study of the Greek and Latin literature, and in this way what is known as our "classical" course of study originated.



An Old-Fashioned Printing Office

Until the nineteenth century, printing was carried on with very little machinery. The type was inked by hand, the paper laid on, and the form then slipped under a wooden press operated by hand by means of a lever

314. Invention of Printing. By the end of the fifteenth century a famous Venetian named Aldus began to make use of a new invention for producing books,—namely, *printing*,—and he issued many handsome and carefully corrected editions of both Greek and Latin writers which greatly promoted the knowledge of the past. This brings us to a consideration of the great advantages of printed books over those copied out by hand. The invention of the compass, lens, and gunpowder have greatly changed the habits of mankind. To these may be added the printing-press, which

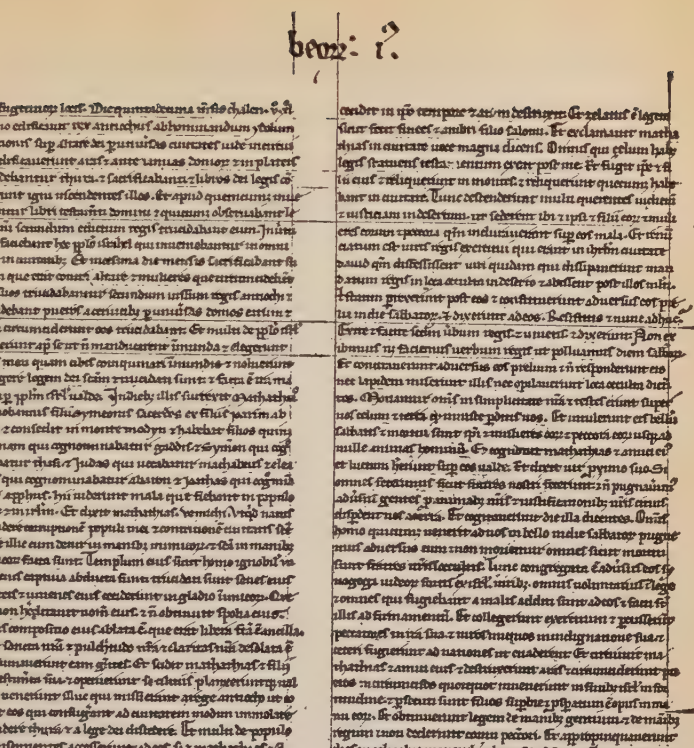
has so multiplied books and encouraged education that the number of those who cannot read is being rapidly reduced.

315. Old Method of Copying Books by Hand. The Greeks and Romans and the people of the Middle Ages knew no other method of obtaining a new copy of a book than by writing it out laboriously by hand. The professional copyists were incredibly dexterous with their quills. They made letters as clear and small, and almost as regular, as if they had been printed (see illustration facing page 154). After the scribe had finished his work the volume was often turned over to the *illuminator*, who would put in bright colored initials and sometimes page borders, which were delightful in design and color.

The written books were often both compact and beautiful; but they were never cheap, or easily produced in great numbers. When Cosimo de' Medici, the grandfather of Lorenzo the Magnificent, wished to form a library, just before the invention of printing, he applied to a contractor, who engaged forty-five copyists. By working hard for nearly two years they were able to produce only two hundred volumes for the new library.

316. Errors of Copyists. Moreover, it was impossible before the invention of printing to have two copies of the same work precisely alike. Even with the greatest care a scribe could not avoid making some mistakes, and a careless copyist was sure to make a great many. With the invention of printing it became possible to produce in a short time a great many copies of a book which were exactly alike. Consequently, if sufficient care was taken to see that the types were properly set up before the book was printed, the whole edition, not simply a single copy, might be relied upon as correct.

317. Paper introduced into Western Europe. After the supply of papyrus—the paper of the Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans—was cut off from Europe by the conquest of Egypt by the Mohammedans, the people of the Middle Ages used *parchment*, made from the skin of lambs and goats. This was so expensive that printing would have been of but little use, even if it had been thought of, until paper—invented by the Chinese



PAGE FROM A COPY OF THE BIBLE MADE IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY
(THE EXACT SIZE OF THE ORIGINAL)

Incipit liber breſith quē nos geneſim
In principio creauit deus celū dīm⁹
et terram. Terra autem erat īanīs et
uacua: et tenebre erāt ſup faciē abiſſi.
et ſps dñi ferebat ſup aquas. Dixitq;
deus. Fiat lux. Et facta ē lux. Et uidit
deus lucem q̄ eſſet bona: et diuiſit lucē
a tenebris. appellauitq; lucem diem et
tenebras noctem. Factūq; eſt ueſpe et
mane dies unus. Dixit q̄; deus. Fiat
firmamentū in medio aquaꝝ: et diuī-
dat aquas ab aquis. Et fecit deus fir-
mamentū: diuiſitq; aquas que erāt
ſub firmamento ab hīs q̄ erant ſup
firmamentū. et factū ē ita. Vocauitq;
deus firmamentū celū: et factū ē ueſpe
et mane dies ſecūd⁹. Dixit uero deus.
Congregent aque que ſub celo ſūt in
locū unū et appareat arida. Et factū ē
ita. Et uocauit deus aridam terram:

Portion of a Page of the First Bible printed by Gutenberg

—was introduced into Europe by the Mohammedans. Paper began to become common in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries and was already replacing parchment before the invention of printing.

318. The Earliest Printed Books. The earliest book of any considerable size to be printed was the Bible, which appears to have been completed at Mainz in the year 1456. There are, however, earlier examples of little books printed with engraved blocks and even with separate types. In the German towns, where the art spread rapidly, the printers adhered to the style of letters which the scribe had found it convenient to make with his quill—the so-called *Gothic*, or black letter (see page 155). In Italy, however, where the first printing-press was set up in 1466, a type was soon adopted quite similar to the style of letter still commonly used today.

319. Rapid Spread of Printing. By the year 1500,—when printing had been used less than half a century,—there appear to have been at least forty printing-presses in various towns of Germany, France, Italy, the Netherlands, and England. These presses had, it is estimated, already printed eight millions of volumes. So there was no longer any danger that the old books would be lost again, and the encouragement to write and publish new books was greatly increased. From that date our sources for history become far more voluminous than those which exist for the previous history of the world; we are much better informed in regard to events and conditions since 1500 than we ever can be respecting those of the earlier periods.

IV. How Europeans discovered a New World in the Search for the Old

320. Explorers find New Sea Routes. The wealth which had served to build up the prosperous Italian cities, with their fine buildings and art, came from their business success, particularly their trade with Eastern countries. Their ships, however, were small and sailed only to the end of the Mediterranean, bringing

back to Venice and Genoa the oriental products which had been delivered by caravans at the Eastern ports, especially Jaffa, Beirut, and Alexandria. These wares were then distributed by German or Dutch merchants to the Northern cities.

The incoming Turks, who were conquering the eastern Mediterranean region, interfered with this profitable trade of the Italian cities. At just this time, however, a beginning was being made in those great geographical discoveries which not only opened new routes by sea directly to the countries from which the desired luxuries came, but also carried Europeans to new lands of which they had never dreamed. Before many decades European seamen were finding their way across the Indian Ocean, the Atlantic Ocean, and finally the Pacific.

321. Marco Polo. About 1260 two Venetian merchants, the Polo brothers, visited China and were kindly received at Peking by the emperor of the Mongols. On a second journey they were accompanied by Marco Polo, the son of one of them. When they got back to Venice in 1295, after an absence of twenty years, Marco wrote an account of his experiences which filled his readers with wonder. Nothing stimulated the interest of the Europeans more than his fabulous description of the abundance of gold in Cipangu (Japan) and of the spice markets of the Moluccas and Ceylon.

322. The Search for Gold and Spices. There is no doubt that the idea that there was a vast amount of gold in the Orient, and the desire to obtain spices and the luxuries with which Europeans were already familiar, were the main reasons for the exploration of the globe.

It is hard for us to understand this enthusiasm for spices. One former use of spices was to preserve food, which could not then (as now) be carried rapidly, while still fresh, from place to place; nor did our conveniences then exist for keeping it by the use of ice or by canning. Moreover, spice served to make even spoiled food more palatable than it would otherwise have been. This motive led European navigators to try every possible way to reach the East—by going around Africa; by sailing west in

THE VOYAGES OF DISCOVERY

THE MALAY ARCHIPELAGO

The outline of the United States has been drawn in to make clear the vast extent of the region explored by the Portuguese at the opening of the sixteenth century. It is not far from two thousand miles from Ceylon to Malacca Strait, and as far from there on to the Spice Islands as from Denver, Colorado, to Richmond, Virginia

the hope of reaching India (before they knew of the existence of America); then, after America was discovered, by sailing around it to the north or south, and even sailing around Europe to the north.

323. The Discoveries of the Portuguese. Strangely enough, it was a little kingdom on the Spanish coast, Portugal, whose ruler, Henry the Navigator, became interested in forwarding the voyages of discovery. By the middle of the fourteenth century the Portuguese had discovered the Canary Islands, Madeira, and the Azores. Before this time no one had ventured along the coast of Africa beyond the arid region of Sahara. The country was forbidding, there were no ports, and mariners were, moreover, discouraged by the general belief that the torrid region was uninhabitable. In 1445, however, some adventurous sailors came within sight of a headland beyond the desert, and, struck by its luxuriant growth of tropical trees, they called it Cape Verde (the green cape). Its discovery put an end to the idea that there were only parched deserts to the south.

For a generation the Portuguese ventured farther and farther along the coast, in the hope of finding it coming to an end, so that they might make their way by sea to India. At last, in 1486, Diaz rounded the Cape of Good Hope. Twelve years later (1498) Vasco da Gama, spurred on by Columbus's great discovery (§ 326), sailed around the Cape of Good Hope and northward beyond Zanzibar, and, aided by an Arab pilot, steered straight across the Indian Ocean and reached Calicut, in Hindustan, by sea. Two years later a Portuguese mariner Cabral reached Brazil and added it to the Portuguese claims.

The Portuguese concluded treaties with the Indian princes and established trading stations at Goa and elsewhere. In 1512 a successor of Vasco da Gama reached Java and the Moluccas, where the Portuguese speedily built a fortress. By 1515 Portugal had become the greatest among sea powers, and spices reached Lisbon regularly without the intervention of the Mohammedan merchants or of the Italian towns, which—especially Venice—were mortally afflicted by the change.

324. Idea of reaching the Indies and the Spice Islands by sailing Westward. It inevitably occurred to thoughtful men that the East Indies could be reached by sailing *westward*. Intelligent people knew, all through the Middle Ages, that the earth is a globe. The chief authority upon the form and size of the earth continued to be the ancient astronomer Ptolemy (§ 163), who had lived about A.D. 150. He had reckoned the earth to be about one sixth smaller than it is; and as Marco Polo had given an exaggerated idea of the distance which he and his companions had traveled eastward, and as no one suspected the existence of the American continents, it was supposed that it could not be a very long journey from Europe across the Atlantic to Japan and India.

325. Sudden Importance of Spain. Spain, of which little or nothing has been said since we saw how the Mohammedans conquered it hundreds of years before, was now about to become rich and important owing to the discovery of a new world beyond the Atlantic. The Mohammedans, or Moors as they are often called, had developed a high civilization which had had much influence on Europe (§ 195). But the history of Spain during the Middle Ages is as confused as that of Germany; for the little Christian principalities, which had maintained themselves in spite of the Moslem invasion, were constantly fighting among themselves as well as with the Moors. The Christian rulers had, however, gradually conquered the Mohammedans and driven many of them out of the country. Finally, in 1492, the last Moorish stronghold, Granada, was taken, and most of the peninsula was brought under the rule of Ferdinand of Aragon and his wife, Isabella of Castile.

326. Columbus discovers America (1492). Thus Spain was unified under Christian rulers just as Columbus, a native of Genoa and an experienced navigator, enlisted Queen Isabella's interest in his great plan of trying to reach the Indies by sailing *westward*. He was supplied with sufficient funds to equip his three little ships to start in search of the island of Cipangu, which he calculated that he ought to reach in five weeks. After

thirty-two days from the time he left the Canary Islands he came upon land, the island of San Salvador, and believed himself to be in the East Indies. Going on from there he discovered the island of Cuba, which he thought was the mainland of Asia, and then Haiti, which he mistook for the longed-for Cipangu. Although he made three later expeditions, and sailed down the coast of South America as far as the Orinoco, he died without realizing that he had not been exploring the coast of Asia.

327. Magellan's Expedition around the World. After the bold enterprises of Vasco da Gama and Columbus an expedition originally headed by the Portuguese Magellan sailed under the Spanish flag and succeeded in circumnavigating the globe (1519–1522). There was now no reason why the new lands should not become more and more familiar to the European nations. The coast of North America was explored principally by English navigators, who for over a century pressed northward, still in the vain hope of finding a northwest passage to the Spice Islands.

328. The Spanish Conquests in America. Cortes began the Spanish conquests in the western world by undertaking the subjugation of the Aztec empire in Mexico in 1519. A few years later Pizarro established the Spanish power in Peru and conquered the Incas. Spain now superseded Portugal as a sea power, and her importance in the sixteenth century is to be attributed largely to the wealth which came to her from her possessions in the New World (Map 10). The languages of the Spanish peninsula, Spanish and Portuguese, are still used throughout practically the whole Western Hemisphere south of the United States.

By the end of the century the Spanish Main—that is, the northern coast of South America and the waters which wash its shores—was much frequented by adventurous seamen, who combined in about equal parts the occupations of merchant, slave dealer, and pirate. Many of these hailed from English ports, and it is to them that England owes the beginning of her commercial greatness.

The exploration of the globe, and the conquest, by European nations, of peoples beyond the sea, led finally to the vast colonization of modern times, which has caused many wars but has served at the same time to spread European ideas throughout the world. (See Chapter XXV.)

QUESTIONS

I. What great discoveries have made modern times so different from the preceding ages? Describe the development of the Italian towns. How was Italy divided in the fourteenth century? Give a picture of Venice at the height of her power. Describe Florence under the rule of the Medici. How did the popes beautify their capital? What can you tell of St. Peter's and the Vatican?

II. Give a brief account of Renaissance art in Italy.

III. Describe the work of Petrarch and the Humanists. How were books made before the invention of printing? What are the disadvantages of books written by hand? What is the earliest large printed book? What have been the chief effects of the introduction of printing?

IV. What geographical discoveries were made before 1500? What effects did the explorations of this period have on commerce? What important part did the spice trade play in the exploration of the globe? What led Columbus to try to reach Japan and India by sailing westward?

CHAPTER XX

BREAK-UP OF THE MEDIEVAL CHURCH: CATHOLICS AND PROTESTANTS

I. The Map of Europe about 1500

329. The Drama of History. The various European countries are something like characters in a long drama full of rivalries and bloodshed, where the contests are over thrones and lands, religion and business. The players differ greatly in stature and strength. As time goes on, the mighty may become weak and the feeble may gain in power and importance. Now and then new characters appear on the stage and assume their rôles, and old ones drop into the background. Finally, in our own day, the stage is crowded with actors from all parts of the world eagerly taking their part in the great game of peace and war. Before proceeding to the conflicts of modern times we must review the chief actors on the stage about the year 1500.

At that time we find on the west coast of Europe four distinct national states, each with its strong monarch and its own national language. These were England, France, Spain, and Portugal. We have just seen that in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries Spain and Portugal became, through their vast possessions in the New World, important European powers.

330. England under the Tudors. In England, following the Hundred Years' War (§ 264), there was a struggle for thirty years between the rival families of Lancaster and York (both descended from Edward III), for the possession of the crown. The so-called Wars of the Roses (the badge of the House of Lancaster was a red rose, and that of York a white one) were brought to an end when Henry VII, the first of the House of Tudor, got the best of his enemies and ascended the throne in

1485. A great part of the nobility whom the kings had formerly feared perished in the long conflict, and this left the monarch stronger than ever before. During the reign of Henry VII and his son Henry VIII, who succeeded him in 1509, Parliament showed itself willing to carry out the wishes of the king. For a century or more the Tudors were able to rule with an almost despotic power. (See Table V.)

331. Development of the Monarchy in France. In France the Estates General, or French parliament, which had been organized about the same time that the English Parliament was growing up, agreed in 1439 that the king should use a certain land tax to support the army. The king now had troops and the right to collect a permanent tax to support them. He was not dependent, as was the English king, upon the grants made for brief periods by Parliament.

After the Hundred Years' War the kings of France greatly strengthened the monarchy by reducing the power of the great nobles and getting a number of important provinces under their control.

332. Italy becomes the Battleground of European Powers. There were a number of reasons why Italy had failed to develop into a strong monarchy like England and France. In the first place, the efforts of the German emperors to keep their control over Italy had developed two opposing parties, one favoring the Emperor and his claims and the other supporting the Pope. In the second place, the Pope did not wish to see a strong monarch in control of Italy, for this would weaken his position, and so he used his influence in keeping any one state from becoming too powerful. Moreover, the city-states were proud of their independence. The European rulers were aware that the Italian states would never combine to resist an invader, and so, from this time on, France, Spain, Austria, and the German emperors made successive attempts to add various portions of the peninsula to their own dominions. Spain and Austria were particularly successful in this, and Italy remained largely under foreign rule down to the latter part of the nineteenth century, when

through the efforts of Italian patriots it was unified under a single ruler and finally became the independent nation it is today.

333. Reasons why the German Kings failed to establish a Strong State. The German kings had failed to create a strong kingdom like France and England. Their fine title of "Emperor" had made them a great deal of trouble and done them no good (§ 227). Their position was further weakened by the fact that their office was not strictly hereditary. Although the emperors were often succeeded by their sons, each new emperor had to be *elected*, and those great vassals (the seven *electors*) who controlled the election naturally took care to bind the candidate by solemn promises not to interfere with their privileges and independence.

In the sixteenth century the "Germanies," as the French called them, consisted of two or three hundred states, which differed greatly from one another in size and character. This one had a duke, that one a count, at its head, while others were ruled over by archbishops, bishops, or abbots. There were many cities, like Hamburg, Frankfurt, and Cologne, just as independent as the great duchies of Bavaria, Württemberg, and Saxony. Lastly, there were the knights, whose possessions might consist of a single strong castle with a wretched village lying at its foot. These states, little and big, all tangled up with one another, were sure to have frequent disputes among themselves and be constantly fighting one another.

334. The Hapsburgs. The dukes of Austria, belonging to the Hapsburg line, were among the most important of the German princes, and the electors had got into the habit of choosing the Emperor from that family. The Hapsburgs continued to be a powerful house down to our own day. It was not until the close of the World War that the Austrian ruler, a Hapsburg, was forced to give up his throne when the Austrian dominions were broken up.

335. Maximilian and the Hapsburg Marriages. Maximilian I, the first great member of the Hapsburg family, married Mary of Burgundy, the heiress to the Burgundian realms, which

included what we now call Holland and Belgium and portions of eastern France. In this way the House of Austria got a hold on the shores of the North Sea. Maximilian's next matrimonial move was to arrange a marriage between his son, Philip, and the daughter and heiress of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain.

336. Charles V and his Possessions. In the year 1500 a baby was born to Philip and his Spanish wife who was destined before he reached the age of twenty to rule, as Emperor Charles V, over more of Europe than anyone since Charlemagne. Philip, Charles's father, died in 1506, and his poor wife, Joanna, became insane with grief and was thus incapacitated for ruling, so Charles could look forward to an unprecedented accumulation of glorious titles upon the death of his grandfathers, Maximilian of Austria and Ferdinand of Aragon[1] (Table IV).

On the death of his grandfather, Ferdinand of Aragon, Charles, a boy of sixteen, became "King of Spain." But still further responsibilities were soon to face him. After Maximilian's death, in 1519, Charles was chosen Emperor. By this election the young king of Spain, who had never been in Germany or learned its language, became its ruler at a very critical moment.

II. The Revolt of Germany against the Papacy; Martin Luther[2]

337. Break-up of the Medieval Church into Catholics and Protestants. By far the most important event during the reign of Charles V was the revolt of a considerable portion of western Europe against the popes. The medieval Church, which was described in a previous chapter, was in this way broken up, and *Protestant* churches appeared in various European countries, which declared themselves entirely independent of the Pope and rejected a number of the religious beliefs which the medieval Church had taught.

[1] Naples and Sicily were in the hands of the king of Aragon at this time.

[2] Before studying this chapter re-read the description of the medieval Church in Chapter XV.

Emperor Charles V. (Portrait by Titian)

Pope Leo X. (Portrait by Raphael)

With the exception of England, all those countries that lay within the ancient bounds of the Roman Empire—Italy, France, Spain, Portugal, as well as southern Germany and Austria—continued to be faithful to the Pope and the Roman Catholic Church. On the other hand, the rulers of the northern German states and of England, Holland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden sooner or later became Protestants. In this way Europe was divided into two great religious parties, and this led to terrible wars and cruel persecutions, which fill the annals of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

338. Sources of Discontent with the Church. The revolt began in Germany. The Germans were at this time still good Catholics and accepted all the beliefs of the Church, but they were seriously troubled by the fact that the popes were so frequently Italians and that the amount of Church contributions collected in Germany was so large. Great German prelates, like the archbishops of Mainz, Trèves, and Cologne, contributed generously to the papal treasury upon having their election confirmed by the Church authorities at Rome. The Pope enjoyed the right to fill the important Church offices in Germany and sometimes appointed Italians, who received the revenue without going to Germany or performing the duties attached to the office. One person often held several Church offices.

339. Earlier Protests against the Church; Erasmus. We have seen that kings and emperors often bitterly resented the interference of the popes in the affairs of their realms. Sometimes their protests were successful, but sometimes, as in the case of Henry IV of Germany, they were forced to submit to public humiliation by the Pope. For a long time German writers had freely criticized the management of the Church, and German assemblies (*diets*) had frequently drawn up lists of grievances against the papal policy. Multitudes of pamphlets had been circulated, often written by able men, so that the great questions which Martin Luther raised had long been the cause of anxious concern.

Among the critics of the Church in the early days of

Charles V's reign the most famous and influential was Erasmus. He was a Dutchman by birth, but spent his life in various other countries—France, England, Italy, and Germany.

One of his best-known books was his *Praise of Folly,* in which he held up to ridicule many of the practices and beliefs which Luther later attacked. He believed that superstition would certainly disappear as people became better educated. It seemed to Erasmus that if everybody could read the Bible, especially the New Testament, for himself, it would be a great advantage. He believed that it was the duty of such intelligent rulers as Henry VIII of England, Francis I of France, the emperor Charles V, and even the Pope himself, to combine in bringing about a peaceful reform.

340. Luther's *Address to the German Nobility.* In 1520 Martin Luther, a professor in the University of Wittenberg, wrote a famous pamphlet called *An Address to the German Nobility,* in which he appealed to the rulers of Germany to reform the Church, since he believed it useless to wait for the popes and bishops to do so. In this pamphlet Luther dealt especially with those practices that interfered with the welfare of the State. He said that the money of the Germans flies "feather-light" over the Alps, but becomes like lead when there is a question of its coming back. He closed with a long list of evils which must be done away with before Germany could become prosperous. He advocated reducing the number of monasteries; he pointed out that the numerous Church holidays interfered with daily work. The clergy, he urged, should be permitted to marry and have families like other citizens.[1]

341. Luther burns the Papal Bull of Excommunication (1520). The Reformation may be said to have begun when Luther de-

[1] A few years before (1517) Luther had created a sensation by boldly attacking the doctrine of indulgences (or church pardons) and especially some of the evils that, he declared, had arisen in connection with the granting of them. In accordance with the custom of the time he had written out in Latin and posted on the church door at Wittenberg a series of ninety-five statements, or *theses*, in regard to indulgences, which he invited any who were interested to discuss with him.

LUTHER AS A MONK. (BY CRANACH, 1520)

None of the portraits of Luther are very satisfactory. His friend Cranach was not, like Holbein the Younger, a great portrait painter. This cut shows the reformer when his revolt against the Church was just beginning. He was thirty-seven years old and still in the dress of an Augustinian friar, which he soon abandoned

PORTRAIT OF ERASMUS. (BY HOLBEIN)

This wonderful picture by Hans Holbein the Younger (1497–1543) hangs in the Louvre Gallery at Paris. We have every reason to suppose that it is an excellent portrait, for Holbein lived in Basel a considerable part of his life and knew Erasmus well. The artist was, moreover, celebrated for his skill in catching the likeness when depicting the human face. He later painted several well-known Englishmen, including King Henry VIII

cided to make a public protest by burning the "bull" (that is, solemn decree) of excommunication which Pope Leo X had published, condemning his teachings. Luther's main point was that human beings were so evil-minded that they could do nothing pleasing to God. They could only repent of their sins and have *faith* in God's promises. It was his faith that *justified* the repentant sinner in God's sight. So Luther came to regard the "good works" recommended or required by the Church—such as the frequent attendance at Mass, the recitation of prayers, pilgrimages, and the veneration of relics—as unnecessary for salvation and sometimes misleading.[1]

The bull had irritated many of the German princes, who were pleased by Luther's denunciation of the practices of the Church which interfered with what they considered the rights of the rulers. Some of the princes and universities published the Pope's bull, but many ignored it, including Luther's own sovereign, the powerful elector of Saxony. The attitude of the princes made Charles V cautious in dealing with the heretic, for he did not wish to lose his influence in his German possessions.

342. Luther condemned by the Edict of Worms (1521). A few months after Luther burned the papal bull, Charles V held his first council, or diet, in Germany in the city of Worms. Luther was summoned to appear, and confessed that he had written various books criticizing the Church. But he believed what he had said was true and felt that he could not do otherwise than maintain the stand he had taken. Thereupon Luther was condemned as a heretic. The Edict of Worms declared him an outlaw and a menace to Church and State. Everyone was forbidden to give him food, drink, or shelter. Moreover, he was to be seized and delivered to the Emperor.

[1] About this time Luther suddenly realized that his beliefs were very much like those of a famous Bohemian heretic, John Huss, who was burnt by order of a Church council at Constance in 1415. Huss had been greatly influenced by the English reformer Wycliffe (d. 1384), who had bitterly attacked the popes. Wycliffe established an order of simple preachers (called the Lollards) whose beliefs were similar to those of later Protestants. Wycliffe also made the first English translation of the Bible.

So general was the disapproval of the edict that few were willing to pay any attention to it. Charles V immediately left Germany and for nearly ten years was occupied with the governing of Spain and a succession of wars.

343. Luther translates the Bible; the Revolt begins. Luther escaped from Worms and retired to a castle called the Wartburg, belonging to his friend the elector of Saxony. Here he began a new translation of the Bible into German.

In the meantime people began to put his teachings into practice. Some of the monks and nuns left their monasteries in his own town of Wittenberg. Some of them married, which seemed —in view of the pledges they had voluntarily taken—a very wicked thing to all those who held to the old beliefs. The students and citizens tore down the images of the saints in the churches and even went so far as to oppose the celebration of the Mass, the chief Catholic sacrament.

Luther was greatly troubled by news of this disorderly reform. He did not approve of sudden and violent changes and left his hiding place to protest. He preached a series of sermons in Wittenberg in which he urged that all alterations in religious services and practices should be introduced by the *government* and not by the *people*. But his advice was not heeded.

The rulers listened to Luther because they were glad of an excuse to get control of the Church property and its revenues. The peasants listened because he put the Bible into their hands and they found nothing there that proved that they ought to go on paying the old dues to their lords.

344. The Peasants' War. In 1525 the serfs rose, in the name of "God's justice," to avenge their wrongs. Some of the demands of the peasants were perfectly reasonable. There were, however, leaders who were violent and who proposed to kill the "godless" priests and nobles. Hundreds of castles and monasteries were destroyed by the frantic peasantry, and some of the nobility were murdered. The nobility took fearful revenge on the peasants; Erasmus reports that a hundred thousand peasants were put to death, many with the utmost cruelty.

The old exactions of the lords of the manors (§ 266) were in no way lightened, and the situation of the serfs for centuries following the great revolt was worse rather than better.

345. Northern German Rulers become Protestants. A new diet held at Speyer in 1526 permitted the various German governments to determine the religion of their subjects. Southern Germany decided for the Pope and remains Catholic down to the present day. Many of the northern rulers, on the other hand, adopted the new teachings, and finally they all fell away from the papacy and became Protestant. When a following diet (1529) tried to enforce the Edict of Worms against the heretics, the princes and towns that had accepted Luther's ideas drew up a *protest* against taking away the liberty that had been given to them. Those who signed this appeal were called *Protestants*, a name which came to be used for those who did not belong to the Catholic Church.

346. The Peace of Augsburg (1555). When Charles V came back to Germany ten years after the Diet of Worms, the Protestant views had been condemned by the Second Diet of Speyer. The efforts of Charles during the remainder of his reign to settle the matter were unsuccessful and there was even some fighting between the Catholics and Protestants. In 1555, however, the Religious Peace of Augsburg was arranged. By its provisions each German prince and each town and knight directly under the Emperor was to be at liberty to make a choice between the beliefs of the venerable Catholic Church and those of the Lutherans. If, however, an archbishop, bishop, or abbot declared himself a Protestant, he must surrender his possessions to the Church. Every German was either to conform to the religious practices of his particular state or emigrate from it. Everyone was supposed to be either a Catholic or a Lutheran, and no provision was made for any other belief.

The arrangement which permitted the various princes to determine the religion of their subjects was far more natural in those days than it would be in ours, for the Church and the government had been closely associated since the last centuries

of the Roman Empire. No one as yet dreamed that it was possible to leave people to make up their own minds on religious matters without interference on the part of the government.

III. The Protestant Revolt in Switzerland

347. Origin of the Swiss Confederation. For at least a century after Luther's death the great issue between Catholics and Protestants dominates the history of all the countries with which we have to do, except Italy and Spain, where Protestantism never took permanent root. In Switzerland, England, France, and Holland the revolt against the medieval Church produced discord, wars, and profound changes.

We turn first to Switzerland, lying in the midst of the great chain of the Alps which extends from the Mediterranean to Vienna. During the Middle Ages the region destined to be included in Switzerland of today formed a part of the Holy Roman Empire and was scarcely distinguishable from the rest of southern Germany. As early as the thirteenth century the three "forest" cantons on the shores of the winding Lake of Lucerne formed a union to protect themselves against their neighbors the Hapsburgs. It was around this tiny nucleus that Switzerland gradually consolidated. By brave fighting, the Swiss were able to frustrate the efforts of the Hapsburgs to subjugate them.

Gradually the bonds between the Swiss union and the Empire were broken. In 1499 Switzerland became a practically independent country. Although the original union had been made up of German-speaking people, considerable districts had been annexed in which Italian or French was spoken. This condition has not changed; all Swiss laws are still proclaimed in three languages. The Swiss did not, therefore, form a compact, well-defined nation, and consequently for some centuries their confederation was weak and ill-organized.

348. Zwingli leads Revolt against the Old Church. In Switzerland the first leader of the revolt against the Church was a young priest named Zwingli, who was a year younger than

THE SWISS CONFEDERATION IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

Switzerland is a country of snowy mountains, green valleys, and deep lakes. Rivers take their rise in this region, and their waters, flowing in all directions through the neighboring lands, find their way into the North Sea, the Black Sea, the Mediterranean, and the Adriatic. Closely surrounded by French, Italian, and German peoples, the inhabitants use the language of the neighboring countries and have no national language of their own

General View of Geneva

Luther. "I began here," he says, "to preach the Gospel of Christ in the year 1516, before anyone in my locality had so much as heard the name of Luther."

But the original cantons about the Lake of Lucerne, which feared that they might lose their great influence, were ready to fight for the old faith. The first armed collision between the Swiss Protestants and Catholics took place at Kappel in 1531, and Zwingli fell in the battle. The various cantons and towns never came to an agreement in religious matters, and Switzerland is still part Catholic and part Protestant.

349. Calvin (1509–1564) and the Presbyterian Church. Far more important than Zwingli's teachings, especially for England and America, was the work of Calvin, who organized the *Presbyterian Church* and formulated its beliefs. Born in northern France in 1509, he was early influenced by the Lutheran teachings, which had already found their way into France. A persecution of the Protestants under Francis I (1515–1547) drove him out of the country. At Basel he issued his great work, *The Institute of the Christian Religion.* It was the first orderly exposition of the principles of Christianity from a Protestant standpoint and formed a convenient manual for study and discussion.

Calvin was called to Geneva about 1540 and intrusted with the task of reforming the town, which had secured its independence from the duke of Savoy. Calvin intrusted the management of church affairs to the ministers and the elders, or *presbyters*; hence the name "Presbyterian." The Protestantism which found its way into France was that of Calvin, not that of Luther, and the same may be said of Scotland.

IV. How England fell away from the Papacy

350. Henry VIII and his Divorce Case. Henry VIII came to the English throne in 1509, when he was eighteen years old. His chief adviser, Cardinal Wolsey, deserves great credit for having constantly striven to discourage his sovereign's ambition to take part in the wars on the continent. But Wolsey, on

account of an unforeseen situation, was not long to be permitted to put his enlightened ideas into practice. Henry had married Catherine of Aragon, the aunt of Emperor Charles V. Only one of their children, Mary, survived to grow up. As time went on Henry was anxious to have a son, for he was fearful lest a woman might not be permitted to succeed to the throne. Moreover, he had tired of Catherine, who was considerably older than he. His anxiety to rid himself of Catherine was greatly increased by the appearance at court of a black-eyed girl of sixteen, named Anne Boleyn, with whom the king fell in love.

Wolsey's failure to persuade the Pope to permit a divorce excited the king's anger, and, with rank ingratitude for his minister's great services, Henry drove him from office (1529) and seized his property. From a life of wealth which was fairly royal, Wolsey was precipitated into extreme poverty and soon died.

When Henry found he was unable to influence the Pope, he lost patience and secretly married Anne Boleyn, relying on getting his divorce from Catherine later. Parliament, which did whatever Henry VIII asked, declared Henry's marriage with Catherine unlawful and that with Anne Boleyn legal.

351. How Henry VIII threw off the Papal Authority. In 1534 the English Parliament completed the revolt of the English Church from the Pope by assigning to the king the right to appoint all the English prelates and to enjoy all the revenues of the Church. In the Act of Supremacy Parliament declared the king to be "the only supreme head in earth of the Church of England," and that he should enjoy all the powers which the title naturally carried with it. It must be carefully observed, however, that although Henry broke with the Church he was not a Protestant, in the Lutheran sense of the word, for he did not accept the teachings of any of the great Protestant leaders.

352. Dissolution of the English Monasteries. As Henry wanted money, he bethought himself of seizing the English abbeys, some of which were very rich; consequently the royal commissioners took possession of the monasteries and their lands and

HENRY VIII. (PORTRAIT BY HOLBEIN)

Queen Mary of England. (By Antonio Moro)

sold every article upon which they could lay hands, including the bells and even the lead on the roofs. The picturesque remains of some of the great abbey churches are still among the chief objects of interest to the sight-seer in England.

353. Henry VIII's Third Marriage and the Birth of Edward VI. Henry's family troubles by no means came to an end with his marriage to Anne Boleyn. Of her too he soon tired, and three years after their marriage he had her executed on a series of monstrous charges. Ten days later he married his third wife, Jane Seymour, who was the mother of his son and successor, Edward VI. It was arranged that should Edward die leaving no heirs to the throne, he should be succeeded by Mary, Henry's daughter by his first wife, Catherine, and that Elizabeth, the daughter of Anne Boleyn, should be next in line of succession. Henry's death in 1547 left the great problem of Protestantism and Catholicism to be settled by his son and daughters. (See Table V.)

354. Edward VI's Ministers introduce Protestant Practices. During the six years of the boy Edward's reign—he died in 1553 at the age of sixteen—those in charge of the government favored the Protestant party and did what they could to change the faith of the people by bringing Protestant teachers from the Continent.

A general destruction of all the images in the churches was ordered; even the beautiful stained glass, the glory of the cathedrals, was demolished, because it often represented saints and angels. The king was to appoint bishops, and Protestants began to be put into the high offices of the Church. Parliament decreed that thereafter the clergy should be free to marry.

355. Queen Mary (1553–1558) and the Catholic Restoration. Edward VI was succeeded in 1553 by his half sister Mary, the daughter of Catherine. Mary had been brought up in the Catholic faith and held firmly to it. Her ardent hope of bringing her kingdom back once more to her religion did not seem altogether ill-founded, for the majority of the people were still Catholics at heart, and many who were not Catholics disapproved of the policy of Edward's ministers.

The Catholic cause appeared, moreover, to be strengthened by Mary's marriage with the Spanish prince, Philip II, the son of the orthodox emperor Charles V. But the English took care that Philip should have no hand in the government nor by any means be permitted to succeed his wife on the English throne.

Mary succeeded in bringing about a reconciliation between England and the Roman Church. In 1554 the papal legate restored the members of Parliament, representing the nation, to the communion of the Catholic Church. During the last four years of Mary's reign the most serious religious persecution in English history occurred. No less than two hundred and seventy-seven persons were put to death for denying the teachings of the Roman Catholic Church.[1] The majority of the victims were humble workmen and farmers.

QUESTIONS

I. How did the English and French kings increase their power after the Hundred Years' War? What obstacles prevented Italy from becoming a unified kingdom? Describe the condition of Germany about the year 1500. Why were the Hapsburgs so important at this period? Over what countries did Charles V rule?

II. What dissatisfaction with the Church grew up among the German Catholics? Describe Erasmus's ideas of reform. How did Luther's theory of salvation differ from the orthodox view? What was the *Address to the German Nobility*? On what grounds was Luther excommunicated? Describe some of the ways in which the revolt began. What was the Peasants' War? What is the origin of the term "Protestants"? How was Germany divided on the religious question? What were the provisions of the Peace of Augsburg?

III. Give an account of the Swiss Confederation. What part did Zwingli play in the revolt against the Church? Give a brief account of John Calvin.

IV. What was the cause of the withdrawal of England from the control of the Pope? Give an account of the dissolution of the monasteries. Under what ruler did England first become a Protestant country? Give an account of the Catholic restoration under Queen Mary.

[1] For the persecution of the Catholics by the Protestants see § 377.

CHAPTER XXI

THE WARS OF RELIGION

I. The Council of Trent; the Jesuits

356. Council of Trent (1545–1563). Although, as we have seen, northern Germany, England, and portions of Switzerland withdrew from the Roman Catholic Church, a great part of western Europe remained faithful to the Pope and to the old beliefs which had been accepted for so many centuries. To consider the important matter of reforming the Catholic Church and to settle disputed questions of religious belief, a great Church council was summoned by the Pope to meet in Trent, on the boundary of Germany and Italy, in the year 1545. The Council of Trent did not complete its work for nearly twenty years.

357. Results of the Catholic Reformation. Although the Council of Trent would make no compromises with the Protestants, it took measures to do away with certain evils of which both Protestants and devout Catholics complained. The bishops were ordered to see that only good men were ordained priests. A great improvement actually took place: better men were placed in office, and many practices which had formerly irritated the people were abolished.

At the Council's suggestion the Pope's officials compiled a list of works which Catholics were not to read, lest their faith in the doctrines of the Church should be disturbed. Similar lists have been printed from time to time down to our own day. The establishment of this *Index of Prohibited Books* was one of the Council's most famous acts.

358. Ignatius Loyola (1491–1556). The Catholic Church was further greatly strengthened by the rise of a powerful organization pledged to the support of the Pope and the Catholic teach-

ings. This was the "Society of Jesus," or Jesuits, founded by a Spaniard, Ignatius Loyola. He summoned his followers to Rome, and there in 1540 his organization received the sanction of the Pope. Loyola had been a soldier in his younger days, and therefore laid great stress upon absolute and unquestioning obedience. Not only were all the members of the new association to obey the Pope as Christ's representative on earth, and to undertake without hesitation any journey, no matter how perilous, which he might command, but each was to obey his superiors in the order as if he were receiving directions from Christ in person.

359. Activities of the Jesuits. The members were to pledge themselves to lead a pure life of poverty and devotion. A great number of the members were priests, who went about preaching, hearing confessions, and encouraging devotional exercises. But the Jesuits were teachers as well as preachers. They clearly perceived the advantage of bringing young people under their influence; they opened schools and soon became the schoolmasters of Catholic Europe.

The Jesuits rapidly spread not only over Europe but throughout the whole world. Francis Xavier, one of Loyola's original little band, went to Hindustan, the Moluccas, and Japan. Brazil, Florida, Mexico, and Peru were soon fields of active missionary work. We owe to the Jesuits' reports much of our knowledge of the condition of America when white men first began to explore Canada and the Mississippi Valley (see § 474).

II. Philip II and the Revolt of the Dutch

360. Division of the Hapsburg Possessions. The chief ally of the Pope and the Jesuits in their efforts to check Protestantism was the son of Emperor Charles V, Philip II of Spain. Charles V, crippled with the gout and old before his time, laid down the cares of government during the years 1555 and 1556. To his brother, Ferdinand, who had acquired by marriage the kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary, Charles had earlier trans-

ferred the German possessions of the Hapsburgs. To his son, Philip II (1556–1598), he gave Spain with its great American colonies, portions of Italy, and the Netherlands (see Table VI). While Charles V had striven to maintain the Catholic religion in all his realms, even by cruel measures, he was no fanatic. His son Philip, on the other hand, was willing to sacrifice himself and his possessions in his long fight against heresy, especially in the Netherlands.

361. The Netherlands. The Netherlands occupied the position on the map where we now find the kingdoms of Holland and Belgium. In the north the Dutch had been able, by means of dikes, to keep out the sea and to reclaim large tracts of lowlands. Here considerable cities had grown up—Haarlem, Leiden, Amsterdam, and Rotterdam. To the south were the flourishing towns of Ghent, Bruges, Brussels, and Antwerp, which had for hundreds of years been centers of manufacture and trade.

362. Philip II's Harsh Attitude toward the Netherlands; Alva. Philip did everything to offend all classes in the Netherlands and to increase their natural hatred of the Spaniards. What was still worse, he proposed that the Inquisition (§ 235) should carry on its work far more actively than hitherto and put an end to the heresy which appeared to him to defile his fair realms.

In 1566 some five hundred of the nobles ventured to protest against Philip's policy. Instead of listening to the appeal of these leaders, Philip dispatched to the low countries the remorseless duke of Alva, whose conduct has made his name synonymous with blind and unmeasured cruelty. Alva's administration from 1567 to 1573 and the atrocities of his rough soldiers produced a veritable reign of terror.

363. William of Orange, called the Silent (1533–1584). The Netherlands found a leader in William, Prince of Orange, who undertook the seemingly hopeless task of freeing his people from the oppressive rule of a distant king. William found his main support in the northern provinces, of which Holland was the chief. The Dutch, who had very generally accepted Protestant teachings, were purely German in blood, while the peo-

ple of the southern provinces, who adhered (as they still do) to the Roman Catholic faith, were more akin to the population of northern France.

The Spanish soldiers found little trouble in defeating the troops which William collected. Like George Washington, he seemed to lose almost every battle and yet was never conquered. The first successes of the Dutch were gained by their bold mariners, who captured Spanish ships and sold them in Protestant England. Encouraged by this, many of the towns in the northern provinces of Holland and Zealand ventured to choose William as their governor, although they did not yet throw off their allegiance to Philip. In this way these two provinces became the nucleus of the United Netherlands.

364. Origin of the Dutch Republic. Alva recaptured a number of the towns which revolted, but his atrocious cruelty aroused even the southern provinces. Philip realized his mistake and withdrew Alva. The more moderate governors whom he now sent won back the southern Catholic provinces, but the northern provinces went their own way, and in 1581, as the United Provinces or Dutch Republic, declared themselves independent of Spain. William of Orange was chosen hereditary governor of the new republic, but was shortly afterwards assassinated by agents of Philip.

This little nation which we now call Holland, like the tiny kingdom of Portugal, became a great colonizing country, and even today has vast possessions in the East and the West Indies. Holland also became the center of free speech and discussion, and men who were afraid to write freely in their own countries retired there. Many of the most interesting books of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were published at Amsterdam or Rotterdam.

III. The Huguenot Wars in France

365. Horrors of Intolerance. One of the saddest aspects of the history of mankind is the record of cruel and bloody warfare which has been carried on in the name of religion. We have

already reviewed a number of conflicts between peoples of different religions—such as the Romans and the Christians, and the Christians and the Mohammedans. But an even more shocking fact has been the persecution by one another of the various divisions which grew up within the Christian religion itself. In the early days of Protestantism there was little of that tolerance to which we are accustomed today. Although Christians believed in the same God and read the same Bible, they gloried in killing one another for holding views which to an onlooker would seem to differ but slightly from their own. Catholics and Protestants not only persecuted each other but even plagued members of their own group. One of the bitterest forms of this "Christian" warfare was that which combined political and business rivalry with religious zeal.

366. Persecutions in France. The history of France during the latter part of the sixteenth century is little more than a chronicle of a long and bloody series of civil wars between Catholics and Protestants. Although Francis I, who came to the French throne in 1515, had no special interest in religious matters, he permitted the massacre of three thousand defenseless peasants on religious grounds. Francis's son, Henry II (1547–1559), swore to extirpate the Protestants, and hundreds of them were burned. He was accidentally killed and left his kingdom to three weak sons, the last heirs of the house of Valois, who succeeded him in turn during a period of unprecedented civil war and public calamity. (See Table VII.)

367. The Huguenots and their Political Aims. By this time the Protestants in France had become a powerful party. They were known as *Huguenots*[1] and accepted the religious teachings of their fellow countryman Calvin. Many of them belonged to the nobility. They had a strong support in the king of the little realm of Navarre, on the southern boundary of France. He belonged to a side line of the French royal house, known as the Bourbons, who were later to occupy the French throne. It was inevitable that the Huguenots should try to get control of the

[1] The origin of this name is uncertain.

government, and they consequently formed a *political* as well as a *religious* party and were often fighting, in the main for worldly ends.

368. Opening of the Huguenot Wars (1562). As the duke of Guise—an ardent Catholic nobleman—was passing through the town of Vassy on a Sunday he found a thousand Huguenots assembled in a barn for worship. The duke's followers rudely interrupted the service, and a tumult arose in which the troops killed a considerable number of the defenseless multitude. The news of this massacre aroused the Huguenots and was the beginning of a war which continued, broken only by short truces, for over thirty years. As in the other religious wars of the time, both sides exhibited inhuman cruelty. For a generation there were burnings, pillage, and atrocities throughout the realm.

369. Massacre of St. Bartholomew. The most frightful event of the period of civil war was the massacre on St. Bartholomew's Day (August 24, 1572), when no less than two thousand Protestants were ruthlessly murdered in Paris on the false charge that there was a great Huguenot conspiracy afoot. It is supposed that ten thousand more Protestants were put to death in other parts of France.

370. Henry IV (1589–1610) accepts the Catholic Faith. At length, in 1589, after a complicated struggle between several claimants of the throne of France, the Huguenot Henry of Navarre, the first of the Bourbons, ascended the throne as Henry IV.

The new king had many enemies, and his kingdom was devastated and demoralized by years of war. He soon saw that he must accept the religion of the majority of his people if he wished to reign over them, and accordingly asked to be readmitted to the Catholic Church (1593), excusing himself on the ground that "Paris was worth a Mass." He did not forget his old friends, however, and in 1598 he issued the Edict of Nantes, which insured by law some protection for the Protestants.

371. The Edict of Nantes. By this edict of toleration the Huguenots were permitted to hold services in all the towns and

villages where they had previously held them, but in Paris and a number of other towns all Protestant services were prohibited. The Protestants were to enjoy the same political rights as Catholics and to be permitted to hold government offices. The Huguenots were to retain a number of fortified towns, where they could defend themselves if attacked. In 1610 Henry IV, like William the Silent, was assassinated just in the midst of his greatest usefulness to his country.

372. Richelieu. Before many years Cardinal Richelieu, perhaps the greatest minister France has ever had, rose to power, and from 1624 to his death in 1642 he governed France for Henry IV's son, Louis XIII (1610–1643). He reduced the power of the Huguenots by depriving them of their fortified towns, not so much on religious grounds as on account of the danger they had become to the king's power.

IV. England under Queen Elizabeth

373. England under Elizabeth (1558–1603). No such terrible civil wars between Catholics and Protestants as had occurred in France took place in England. During her long reign Queen Elizabeth succeeded for the most part not only in maintaining peace at home but in repelling the attacks on her realm from without.

A wealthy middle class was growing up in England who made their money in sheep raising, manufacture, and commerce. English trade was greatly extended, and the bold mariners of Elizabeth's time sailed about the whole globe, seeking new routes, capturing Spanish ships, plundering Spanish colonies, and sometimes engaging in the horrible traffic in negro slaves, whom they seized in Africa and sold in the Americas.

Houses were more comfortable than they had been, and those who could afford them wore very fine clothes. Wines were imported from the Continent, and tobacco was introduced, but coffee and tea were as yet unknown in England. Pewter plates and spoons began to replace the wooden ones, and chimneys and window glass rendered houses livable. Mattresses and pillows

took the place of straw pallets and the wooden blocks formerly used. People continued, however, to eat with knives or with their fingers, for forks did not come in until later.

Elizabeth's reign was celebrated for its great writers, like Shakespeare, Bacon, and Spenser. Poetry, the drama, and science all flourished (§§ 391, 394).

374. Elizabeth establishes the Church of England. Upon the death of Queen Mary, in 1558, the English government once more became Protestant. Queen Elizabeth had a new revised edition issued of the Book of Common Prayer which had been prepared in the time of her half brother, Edward VI. This contained the services which the government ordered to be held in all the churches of England. All her subjects were required to go to church, and ministers were to use no other than the official Prayer Book. Elizabeth retained many features of the Catholic Church, including the bishops and archbishops. So the *Anglican Church*, as it was called, followed a middle path, halfway between the Lutherans and Calvinists on the one hand and the Catholics on the other.

The Church of England still exists in much the same form in which it was established in the first years of Elizabeth's reign, and the Prayer Book is still used, although Englishmen are no longer required to attend church and may hold any religious views they please without interference by the government.

375. Mary Stuart, the Scotch Queen, the Hope of the Catholics. In 1561 the Scotch queen, Mary Stuart, whose French husband, Francis II, had just died, landed at Leith. She was but nineteen years old, of great beauty and charm, and, by reason of her Catholic faith and French training, almost a foreigner to her subjects, for many of the Scotch people had accepted the Protestant teachings of Calvin. Her grandmother was a sister of Henry VIII, and Mary claimed to be the rightful heiress to the English throne should Elizabeth die childless. Consequently the Queen of Scots became the hope of those who wished to bring back England and Scotland to the Roman Catholic faith. Chief among these was Philip II of Spain.

PORTRAIT OF QUEEN ELIZABETH

Elizabeth deemed herself a very handsome and imposing person. She was fond of fine clothes and doubtless had on her best when she sat for her portrait

MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS AND DARNLEY

Mary had been married to the heir to the French throne when she was sixteen. Her French husband, Francis II, died less than three years after. She then returned to Scotland and married her cousin Lord Darnley in 1565, when she was twenty-three years old

Mary quickly discredited herself with both Protestants and Catholics by her conduct. She was suspected of being implicated in the death of her second husband, Lord Darnley, in order to marry a nobleman named Bothwell. How far Mary was responsible for her husband's death no one can be sure. It is certain that she later married Bothwell and that her Protestant subjects thereupon deposed her as a murderess. After fruitless attempts to regain her power she abdicated in favor of her infant son, James VI, fled to England, and threw herself on Elizabeth's mercy. Elizabeth, who was afraid of Mary's claims, took good care to keep her rival practically a prisoner.

376. Catholic Plans for deposing Elizabeth. A rising in the north of England (1569) showed that there were many who would gladly reëstablish the Catholic faith by freeing Mary and placing her on the English throne. This was followed by the excommunication of Elizabeth by the Pope, who at the same time absolved her subjects from their allegiance to their heretical ruler. The revolt in the North was suppressed, but the English Catholics continued to look to Philip for help. They opened correspondence with Alva and invited him to invade England, dethrone Elizabeth, and make Mary Stuart queen in her stead.

377. Persecution of the English Catholics. Two Jesuits were sent to England in 1580 to encourage the members of their faith. Parliament now grew more intolerant and ordered fines and imprisonment to be inflicted on those who said or heard Mass or who refused to attend the English services. Two hundred Catholic priests, it is said, were executed, and others were tortured or perished miserably in prison.

378. Execution of Mary Queen of Scots (1587). Mary Queen of Scots became involved in another plot for the assassination of Elizabeth. Parliament now realized that as long as Mary lived Elizabeth's life was in constant danger; whereas if Mary were out of the way, Philip II would have no interest in the death of Elizabeth, since Mary's son, James VI of Scotland, who would succeed Elizabeth on the English throne, was a Prot-

estant. (See Table V.) Elizabeth was therefore reluctantly persuaded by her advisers to sign a warrant for Mary's execution in 1587, and the Scotch queen was beheaded.

379. Destruction of the Spanish Armada (1588). Philip II did not give up, however, his project of bringing England back to the Catholic faith. In 1588 he collected a great fleet, including his best and largest warships, which was proudly called by the Spaniards the "Invincible Armada" (that is, fleet). This was to sail through the English Channel to the Netherlands and bring over the Spanish commander there and his veterans, who, it was expected, would soon make an end of Elizabeth's raw militia. The English ships were inferior to those of Spain in size, although not in number, but they had trained commanders, such as Francis Drake and Hawkins.

These famous captains had long sailed the Spanish Main and knew how to use their cannon without getting near enough to the Spaniards to suffer from their fire. When the Armada approached it was permitted by the English fleet to pass up the Channel before a strong wind, which later became a storm. The English ships then followed, and both fleets were driven past the coast of Flanders. Of the hundred and thirty Spanish war vessels only fifty-four returned home; the rest had been destroyed by English valor or by the gale, to which Elizabeth herself ascribed the victory. The defeat of the Armada put an end to the danger from Spain.

380. Failure of Philip II's Policy. When Philip II died, in 1598, it was apparent that he had not succeeded in his cherished purposes. England was permanently Protestant; the "Invincible Armada" had been miserably wrecked, and Philip's plan for bringing England once more within the fold of the Roman Catholic Church was forever frustrated. In France the terrible wars of religion were over, and a powerful king, Henry IV, lately a Protestant himself, was on the throne, who not only tolerated the Protestants but would stand no more meddling of Spain in French affairs. A new Protestant state, the United Netherlands (Holland), had actually appeared within the

bounds of the realms bequeathed to Philip by his father. After Philip II's death Spain was reduced to the rank of a secondary European power.

V. The Thirty Years' War

381. The Thirty Years' War really a Series of Wars. The last great conflict caused by the differences between Catholics and Protestants was fought out in Germany during the first half of the seventeenth century. It is generally known as the Thirty Years' War (1618–1648), but there was in reality a series of wars; and although the fighting was done upon German territory, Sweden, France, and Spain played quite as important a part in the struggle as the various German states.

382. Opening of the Thirty Years' War (1618). Since the Religious Peace of Augsburg, in 1555 (§ 346), the Protestants had increased in numbers, and the seizure of Church property by the Protestant princes had continued. Bohemia and even Austria contained many Protestants, and this was a source of terrible anxiety to the Hapsburg rulers and their efficient helpers the Jesuits. Bohemia, in 1618, determined to call a Calvinist prince from the Palatinate on the Rhine to be its king. The Emperor, however, was able to put the new ruler to flight after a reign of a single winter.

Encouraged by the successes of the Catholic armies in defeating the Bohemians, the Emperor ordered the Protestants throughout Germany to give back all the Church possessions which they had seized since the Religious Peace of Augsburg. But when his general, Wallenstein, attempted to enforce this order in his usual merciless fashion, a new friend of the Protestants appeared in the person of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden.

383. The Kingdom of Sweden. We have had no occasion hitherto to speak of the Scandinavian kingdoms of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, which the northern German peoples had established about Charlemagne's time; but from now on they

begin to take part in the affairs of central Europe. The Union of Calmar (1397) had brought these three kingdoms, previously separate, under a single ruler. About the time that the Protestant revolt began in Germany the union was broken by the withdrawal of Sweden, which became an independent kingdom. Gustavus Vasa, a Swedish noble, led the movement and was later chosen king of Sweden (1523). In the same year Protestantism was introduced. Vasa confiscated the Church lands, got the better of the nobles,—who had formerly made the kings a great deal of trouble,—and started Sweden on its way toward national greatness.

384. Gustavus Adolphus invades Germany. A hundred years later the Swedish king Gustavus Adolphus invaded Germany, to aid his fellow Protestants and mayhap to gain a strip of German territory for Sweden. Near Leipzig he met and routed the army of the Catholics. At this juncture Wallenstein collected a new army, over which he was given absolute command. Gustavus gained a great victory over Wallenstein (1632), but ventured too far into the enemy's lines and was killed.

The Swedes did not, however, retire from Germany, but continued to participate in the war, which now degenerated into a series of raids by leaders whose soldiers depopulated the land by their unspeakable atrocities. Wallenstein, who had long been detested even by the Catholics, was murdered in 1634, to the great relief of all parties.

385. Richelieu renews the Struggle of France against the Hapsburgs. Richelieu, the great minister of France, decided that it would be to the interest of his king to renew the old struggle with the Hapsburgs by sending troops against the Emperor. France was still shut in, as she had been since the time of Charles V, by the Hapsburg lands. So the war was renewed in 1635, and French, Swedish, Spanish, and German soldiers ravaged an already exhausted country for a decade longer. Then came, in 1648, the famous Peace of Westphalia.

386. Provisions of the Treaty of Westphalia. The Protestant princes were to retain the lands which they had in their

possession in the year 1624, and each ruler was still to have the right to determine the religion of his state. The practical dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire was acknowledged by permitting the individual states to make treaties among themselves and with foreign powers; this was equivalent to recognizing the independence which they had already long enjoyed.

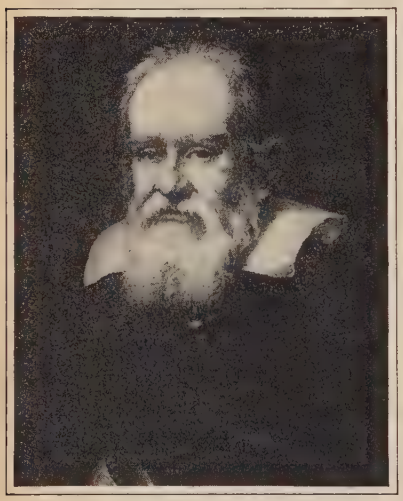
The Emperor also ceded to France important towns—including Metz and Verdun—and all his rights in Alsace, although the city of Strasbourg was to remain with the Empire. It was in this way that France first got its hold on this region, which was to become one of the great issues of the World War.

387. Disastrous Results of the War in Germany. The accounts of the misery and depopulation of Germany caused by the Thirty Years' War are well-nigh incredible. Until the opening of the nineteenth century Germany continued to be divided up into many little states. But the electors of Brandenburg, of the hitherto unimportant House of Hohenzollern, were just beginning to build up a power destined to become modern Prussia.

VI. The Beginnings of our Scientific Age

388. The New Science. The battles of the Thirty Years' War are now well-nigh forgotten, and few people are interested in Wallenstein and Gustavus Adolphus. It seems as if the war did little but destroy men's lives and property, and that no great ends were accomplished by all the suffering it involved. But during the years that it raged certain men were quietly devoting themselves to scientific research which was to change the world more than all the battles that have ever been fought. These men adopted a new method. They perceived that the books of ancient writers, especially Aristotle, which were used as textbooks in the universities, were full of statements that could not be proved. They maintained that the only way to advance science was to set to work and try experiments, and by careful thought and investigation to determine the laws of nature without regard to what previous generations had believed.

389. The Discovery of Copernicus. The Polish astronomer Copernicus published a work in 1543 in which he refuted the old idea that the sun and all the stars revolved around the earth as a center, as was then taught in all the universities. He showed that, on the contrary, the sun is the center about which the earth and the rest of the planets revolve, and that the reason that the stars seem to go around the earth each day is because our globe revolves on its axis. Although Copernicus had been encouraged to write his book by a cardinal and had dedicated it to the Pope, the Catholic as well as the Protestant theologians declared that the new theory contradicted the teachings of the Bible, and they therefore rejected it. But we know now that Copernicus was right and the theologians and universities wrong.



GALILEO

390. Galileo. The Italian scientist Galileo (1564–1642), by the use of a little telescope he contrived, was able, in 1610, to see the spots on the sun; these indicated that the sun was not, as Aristotle had taught, a perfect, unchanging body, and showed also that it revolved on its axis, as Copernicus had guessed that the earth did. Galileo made careful experiments, by dropping objects from the leaning tower of Pisa, which proved that Aristotle was wrong in assuming that a body weighing a hundred pounds fell a hundred times as fast as a body weighing but one. He wrote in Italian as well as in Latin. His opponents might have forgiven him had he written only for the learned, but they thought it highly dangerous to have the new ideas set forth in

such a way that the people at large might come to doubt what the theologians and universities were teaching. Galileo was finally summoned before the Inquisition; some of his theories were condemned, and he was imprisoned by the Church authorities.

391. Francis Bacon's *New Atlantis*. Francis Bacon, an English lawyer and government official, spent his spare hours in explaining how men could increase their knowledge. He too wrote in his native tongue as well as in Latin. He was the most eloquent representative of the new science which renounced *authority* and relied upon *experiment*. "*We* are the ancients," he declared, "—not those who lived long ago when the world was young and men ignorant." Late in life he began to write a little book, which he never finished, called the *New Atlantis*. It describes an imaginary state which some European mariners were supposed to have discovered on an island in the Pacific Ocean. The chief institution was a "House of Solomon," a great laboratory for carrying on scientific investigation in the hope of discovering new facts and using them for bettering the condition of the inhabitants. This House of Solomon became a model for the Royal Society, established in London some fifty years after Bacon's death. It still exists and publishes its discussions.

392. Scientific Societies Founded. The earliest societies for scientific research grew up in Italy. Later the English Royal Society and the French Institute were established, as well as similar associations in Germany. These were the first things of the kind in the history of the world—except perhaps the ancient "Museum" at Alexandria (§ 113). Their object was not, like that of the old Greek schools of philosophy and the medieval universities, mainly to hand down and explain the knowledge derived from the past, *but to find out what had never been known before.*

We have seen how in the fourteenth century new inventions were introduced, such as the compass, paper, spectacles, gunpowder, and, in the fifteenth century, the printing-press. But in the seventeenth century, progress began to be much more rapid, and an era of invention opened, in the midst of which we still

live. The microscope and telescope made it possible to discover innumerable scientific truths that were hidden from the Greeks and Romans. In time this scientific advance produced a *spirit of reform*, also new in the world. (See Chapter XXVI.)

QUESTIONS

I. What was accomplished by the Council of Trent? What is the *Index*? Describe the founding of the order of Jesuits. What were its aim and policy?

II. Describe the revolt of the Netherlands. What was the character of Philip II? What was the origin of the Dutch Republic?

III. Describe the beginnings of Protestantism in France. Describe the struggle of the Huguenots with the Catholics. What was the attitude of Henry IV toward the Protestants? What were the provisions of the Edict of Nantes?

IV. What religious settlement was made by Queen Elizabeth? Describe the characteristics of the English Church. In what way did Mary Stuart threaten the power of Elizabeth? Describe the destruction of the Armada.

V. Give a brief account of the Thirty Years' War. What were the provisions of the Treaty of Westphalia? What were the results of the war on Germany?

VI. What was the great discovery made by Copernicus? What discoveries were made by Galileo? Why was the Church opposed to the teachings of these men? What do you know of Francis Bacon? Give an account of the founding of scientific societies.

CHAPTER XXII

STRUGGLE IN ENGLAND BETWEEN KING AND PARLIAMENT

I. The Stuarts and the Divine Right of Kings

393. Accession of James I of England (1603); the Stuarts. On the death of Elizabeth in 1603 James I ascended the throne. It will be remembered that he was the son of Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, and through her he was a descendant of Henry VII. In Scotland he reigned as James VI; consequently the two kingdoms were now brought together under the same ruler.[1]

394. Great Writers of James's Reign: Shakespeare, Bacon, Harvey. The writers of James's reign constituted its chief glory. They outshone those of any other European country. Shakespeare is generally admitted to be the greatest dramatist that the world has produced. While he wrote many of his plays before the death of Elizabeth, some of his finest—*Othello*, *King Lear*, and the *Tempest*, for example—belong to the time of James I.

At the same time, Francis Bacon was making his eloquent plea for modern science. It was in James's reign also that the English translation of the Bible was made which is still published as the *authorized* version in all countries where English is spoken.

An English physician of this period, William Harvey, examined the workings of the human body more carefully than

[1] See Table VIII. When the Angles and Saxons invaded England, some of them wandered into the Lowlands of Scotland. The mountainous region to the north, known as the Highlands, continued, however, to be held by tribes, related to the Welsh and Irish, speaking a language similar to theirs; namely, Gaelic. The Highlands and Lowlands were finally united under a line of Scotch kings who made Edinburgh their chief town. From the time of Edward I (1290) the English kings had tried to annex Scotland, but the Scotch, who were very plucky, had always been able to maintain their independence.

any previous investigator and made the great discovery of the manner in which the blood circulates from the heart through the arteries and capillaries and back through the veins.

395. The Stuart Notion of Kingship. The chief interest of the period of the Stuarts, which began with the accession of James I and ended with the flight from England of his grandson, James II eighty-five years later, is the long and bitter struggle between the kings and Parliament. The vital question was, Should the kings, who claimed to be God's representatives on earth, do as they thought fit, or should Parliament control the government of the country? James I had a very irritating way of claiming to be the sole and supreme ruler of England. He wrote a book in which he asserted that the king could make any law he pleased without consulting Parliament; that he was the master of every one of his subjects, high and low, and might put to death whom he pleased. According to this theory, which is called "the divine right of kings," it had pleased God to appoint the monarch the father of his people, who must obey him as they would God and ask no questions. The king was responsible to God alone, to whom he owed his powers,—not to Parliament or the nation.

396. Charles I (1625–1649) and his Struggle with Parliament. Charles I, James's son and successor, did nothing to remove the disagreeable impressions which his father had made, and began immediately to quarrel with Parliament. When that body refused to grant him funds,—mainly because they thought that these were likely to be wasted by his favorite, the duke of Buckingham,—Charles attempted, without permission of Parliament, to raise money in irregular ways, such as forcing loans from his subjects and imprisoning those who protested.

These and other attacks upon the rights of his people led Parliament to draw up, in 1628, the celebrated *Petition of Right*, which is one of the most important documents in the history of the English Constitution. Parliament "humbly prayed" that no man need thereafter be forced to make any gift or loan to the king without consent of Parliament; that

CHARLES I. (PORTRAIT BY VAN DYCK)

CHILDREN OF CHARLES I. (PORTRAIT BY VAN DYCK)

The boy in the center became Charles II, and his brother, standing at his right, became James II

no free man should be imprisoned except according to the laws and statutes of the realm as presented in the Great Charter (§ 256). Very reluctantly Charles consented to this restatement of the limitations which the English had always, in theory at least, placed upon the powers of their king.

The disagreement between Charles and Parliament was rendered much more serious by religious differences. The king had married a French Catholic princess. Moreover, there seemed to be a growing inclination in England to restore the older ceremonies of the Church which had prevailed before the Protestant Revolt and which shocked the more strongly Protestant members of the House of Commons.

397. Charles dissolves Parliament (1629) and determines to rule by himself. This fear of a return to Roman Catholicism served to widen the breach between Charles and the Commons. The Parliament of 1629, after a stormy session, was dissolved by the king, who determined to rule thereafter by himself. For eleven years no new Parliament was summoned.

Charles was not well fitted by nature to run the government of England by himself. He had not the necessary tireless energy. Moreover, the methods resorted to by his ministers to raise money without recourse to Parliament rendered the king more and more unpopular.

398. The Different Sects of Protestants. There was continued trouble over religious matters; for the Protestants not only feared the Catholics, but the various sects of Protestants disliked one another. Some preferred to retain many of the old features of the Catholic Church; while others—the so-called Low Church party, or Puritans, favored a simple service. There were also the Presbyterians and an ever-increasing number of Separatists, or Independents. These rejected both the organization of the Church of England and that of the Presbyterians and desired that each religious community should organize itself independently. The government had forbidden these Separatists to hold their little meetings, which they called *conventicles*, and about 1600 some of them fled to Holland.

399. The Pilgrim Fathers. The community of Separatists which established itself at Leiden dispatched the *Mayflower*, in 1620, with colonists—since known as the Pilgrim Fathers—to the New World, across the sea. It was these colonists who laid the foundations of a *New England* which has proved a worthy offspring of the mother country. The form of worship which they established in their new home is still known as Congregational.

400. The Long Parliament. In 1640 Charles found himself engaged in a war with Scotland. The army which the king got together was reluctant to fight the Scots, so Charles was at last obliged to summon a Parliament. This, owing to the length of time it remained in session, was called the *Long Parliament*. It drew up a "Grand Remonstrance" in which all of Charles's tyrannies were enumerated and a demand was made that the king's ministers should thereafter be responsible to Parliament.

401. Civil War (1642); Cavaliers and Roundheads. Matters grew rapidly worse, and both Charles and Parliament now began to gather troops for the inevitable conflict, which plunged England into civil war. Those who supported Charles were known as *Cavaliers*. The parliamentary party was popularly called the *Roundheads*, since some of them cropped their hair close because of their dislike for the long locks of their more aristocratic and worldly opponents.

The Roundheads soon found a distinguished leader in Oliver Cromwell (b. 1599), a country gentleman and member of Parliament. Cromwell organized a compact army of God-fearing men, who were not permitted to indulge in profane words or light talk, as is the wont of soldiers, but advanced upon their enemies singing psalms. The war continued for several years and, after the first year, went in general against the Cavaliers. Finally, the king, defeated on every side, fell into the hands of Parliament, which kept him prisoner.

402. Execution of Charles (1649). There were, however, many in the House of Commons who still sided with the king, and in December, 1648, that body declared for a reconciliation

with the monarch. The next day, however, all those who were friendly to the king were prevented from entering the House, by a troop of soldiers which had been stationed at the door.

In this way the House of Commons was brought completely under the control of those most bitterly hostile to Charles, whom they immediately proposed to bring to trial. They declared that the House of Commons, since it was chosen by the people, was supreme in England and the source of all just power, and that consequently neither king nor House of Lords was necessary. The mutilated House of Commons appointed a special High Court of Justice made up of Charles's sternest opponents, who alone would consent to sit in judgment on him. They passed sentence upon the king, and on January 30, 1649, Charles was beheaded in front of his palace of Whitehall, London. It must be clear from the above account that it was not the nation at large which demanded Charles's death, but a very small group of extremists who claimed to be the representatives of the nation.

II. Oliver Cromwell; England a Commonwealth

403. England becomes a Commonwealth, or Republic. The "Rump Parliament," as the remnant of the House of Commons was contemptuously called, proclaimed England to be thereafter a "commonwealth"; that is, a republic, without a king or a House of Lords. But Cromwell, the head of the army, was nevertheless the real ruler of England. He was supported by the Independents, but his main strength lay in his skill as a ruler and in the well-organized army of some fifty thousand men which he had at his command.

404. Ireland and Scotland subdued. Cromwell found himself confronted by every kind of difficulty. The three kingdoms had fallen apart. The nobles and Catholics in Ireland proclaimed Charles II as king, and an army of Irish Catholics and English Royalist Protestants was formed with a view to overthrowing the Commonwealth. Cromwell accordingly set out for Ireland,

where town after town surrendered to his army. In 1652, after much cruelty, the island was once more conquered. A large part of it was confiscated for the benefit of the English, and the Catholic landowners were driven into the hills. In the meantime Charles II, who, after his father's execution, had taken refuge in France, had in 1650 landed in Scotland, and upon his agreeing to be a Presbyterian king the whole Scotch nation was ready to support him. But Scotland was subdued by Cromwell even more promptly than Ireland had been.

OLIVER CROMWELL

This portrait is by Peter Lely and was painted in 1653

405. Cromwell dissolves the Long Parliament (1653) and is made Lord Protector. The Rump Parliament soon became very unpopular; for its members, in spite of their boasted piety, accepted bribes and were anxious to put their relatives in office. At last Cromwell upbraided them angrily for their self-seeking, which was injuring the public cause. On being interrupted by a member, he cried out: "Come, come, we have had enough of this. I'll put an end to this." Calling in his soldiers, he turned the members out of the House and sent them home.

Having thus dissolved the Long Parliament April, 1653, he summoned a Parliament of his own, made up of "God-fearing" men whom he and the officers of his army chose. This extraordinary body is known as Barebone's Parliament, from a distinguished member, a London merchant, with the characteristically Puritan name of "Praisegod Barebone." Many of

these godly men were, however, unpractical and hard to deal with. A minority of the more sensible ones got up early one winter morning (December, 1653) and, before their opponents had a chance to protest, declared Parliament abolished and placed the supreme authority in the hands of Cromwell.

For nearly five years Cromwell was, as Lord Protector (a title equivalent to that of "Regent"), practically king of England, although he refused actually to accept the royal insignia. In May, 1658, Cromwell fell ill and died; and as a great storm passed over England at that time, the Cavaliers asserted that the devil had come to fetch home the soul of the usurper.

III. The Restoration

406. The Restoration; Charles II (1660–1685). By 1660 the nation was tired of disorder and glad to acknowledge Charles II, whom everyone preferred to a government by soldiers. A new Parliament, composed of both Houses, was assembled, which welcomed a messenger from the king and solemnly resolved that "according to the ancient and fundamental laws of this kingdom, the government is, and ought to be, by kings, lords, and commons." Thus the Puritan revolution and the short-lived republic were followed by the *Restoration* of the Stuarts.

Charles II was quite as fond as his father of having his own way, but he was a man of more ability. He disliked to be ruled by Parliament, but, unlike his father, he was too wise to arouse the nation against him. He did not propose to let anything happen which would send him on his travels again. He and his courtiers led a gay life, in sharp contrast to the Puritan ideas.

407. Religious Measures adopted by Parliament. Charles's first Parliament was a moderate body; but his second was made up almost wholly of Cavaliers, and it got along, on the whole, so well with the king that he did not dissolve it for eighteen years. It did not take up the old question, which was still unsettled, as to whether Parliament or the king was really supreme. It showed its hostility to the Puritans, however, by a series of in-

tolerant laws, which are very important in English history. An effort was made to exclude Presbyterians and Independents from town offices. By the Act of Uniformity (1662) any clergyman who refused to accept everything in the Book of Common Prayer was to be excluded from holding his position.

These laws tended to throw all those Protestants who refused to conform to the Church of England into a single class, still known today as *Dissenters*. It included the Independents, the Presbyterians, and the newer bodies of the Baptists and the Society of Friends (commonly known as Quakers). These sects had no desire to control the religion or politics of the country and asked only that they might be permitted to worship in their own way outside of the English Church. The law excluding all but adherents of the English Church from office remained in force down into the nineteenth century.

IV. The Revolution of 1688

408. James II (1685–1688). Upon Charles II's death he was succeeded by his brother, James II, who was an avowed Catholic and had married, as his second wife, Mary of Modena, who was also a Catholic. He was a far more religious man than the late king and was ready to reëstablish Catholicism in England regardless of what it might cost him. Mary, James's daughter by his first wife, had married her cousin, William III, Prince of Orange,[1] the head of the United Netherlands, as Holland was called. The English nation might have tolerated James so long as they could look forward to his Protestant daughter as their next ruler; but when a son was born to his Catholic second wife, and James showed unmistakably his purpose of favoring the Catholics, messengers were dispatched by a group of Protestants to William of Orange, asking him to come and rule over them.

409. The Revolution of 1688 and the Accession of William III (1688–1702). William landed in November, 1688, and

[1] Son of Charles I's daughter Mary, who had married William II, Prince of Orange (see Table VIII).

marched upon London, where he received general support from all the English Protestants, regardless of party. James II started to oppose William; but his army refused to fight, and his courtiers deserted him. James fled to France, and a new Parliament declared the throne vacant.

410. The Bill of Rights (1689). A *Bill of Rights* was then drawn up which provided that William and Mary should be joint sovereigns. It once more stated the fundamental rights of the English nation and recalled the limitations which the Petition of Right and the Great Charter of King John had placed upon the king. By this peaceful revolution the English rid themselves of the Stuarts and their claims to rule by divine right, the powers of Parliament were once more established, and the Catholic question was practically settled by the dethroning of James II.

A *Toleration Act* was passed by Parliament, which freed Dissenters from all penalties for failing to attend services in Anglican churches and allowed them to have their own meetings. Even Catholics, while not included in the act of toleration, were permitted to hold services undisturbed by the government.

411. Questions settled by the Accession of William and Mary. With the accession of William and Mary, in 1688, England may be said to have practically settled the two great questions that had produced such serious dissensions during the previous fifty years. In the first place, the nation had clearly shown that it proposed to remain Protestant, and the relations between the Church of England and the Dissenters were gradually being satisfactorily adjusted. In the second place, the powers of the king had been carefully defined, and from the opening of the eighteenth century to the present time no English monarch has ventured to veto an act of Parliament.

412. The Union of England and Scotland (1707). William III was succeeded in 1702 by his sister-in-law, Anne (1702–1714), a younger daughter of James II. The most important event of her reign was the final union of England and Scotland. The

two countries had been under the same ruler since the accession of James I, but each had maintained its own independent parliament and system of government. Finally, in 1707, both nations agreed to unite their governments into one. Forty-five members of the British House of Commons were to be chosen thereafter in Scotland, and sixteen Scotch lords were to be added to the English House of Lords. In this way the whole island of Great Britain was placed under a single government, and the occasions for strife were thereby greatly reduced.[1]

QUESTIONS

I. How were the kingdoms of England and Scotland united on the accession of James I? Name some of the distinguished writers of James's reign. What were the views of kingship held by the Stuarts? What was Charles's attitude toward Parliament? What was the Petition of Right? What were the chief religious parties in England in the time of Charles I? Describe the events which led to the execution of Charles.

II. What form of government was introduced after Charles's death? How did Cromwell deal with Parliament? In what did Cromwell's strength consist?

III. What led to the restoration of the Stuarts? What laws were passed by Parliament against the Puritans? Who were the Dissenters?

IV. Why was James II unpopular? What was the Revolution of 1688? What was the substance of the Bill of Rights? of the Toleration Act? What questions were settled by the accession of William and Mary? On what terms were England and Scotland united in 1707?

[1] Wales had come under the English crown in 1284, when it was conquered by Edward I. Edward introduced English laws and customs and met little opposition from the Welsh. He gave his son the title "Prince of Wales," which the heir to the English throne still retains.

BOOK IV. THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

CHAPTER XXIII

THE DAYS OF LOUIS XIV

I. Louis XIV in his Glory (1643–1715)

413. France at the Accession of Louis XIV. During the long reign of Louis XIV (seventy-two years) France occupied a position of commanding importance in European affairs. When Louis took up the "business of reigning" at the death of Cardinal Mazarin, who had been in charge of the government while Louis was growing up, he inherited a kingdom such as no previous French monarch had enjoyed. For a generation the great ministers of France, Cardinal Richelieu (1624–1642) and Cardinal Mazarin (1642–1661), had devoted their energy and ability to making the king supreme in France, and France the leading power in Europe. Henry IV had begun the task of building up the strength of the nation by encouraging manufactures and commerce and by a thorough reform in money matters. But it remained for the two distinguished cardinals to establish the absolute and unquestioned power of the French monarch. This they accomplished by managing to get all important governmental matters into the hands of the king and his appointees; by depriving the nobles of many of their former privileges; by destroying their fortified castles, so that they were no longer feudal lords able to defy their king; and by building up the best army in Europe, paid and commanded by the monarch.

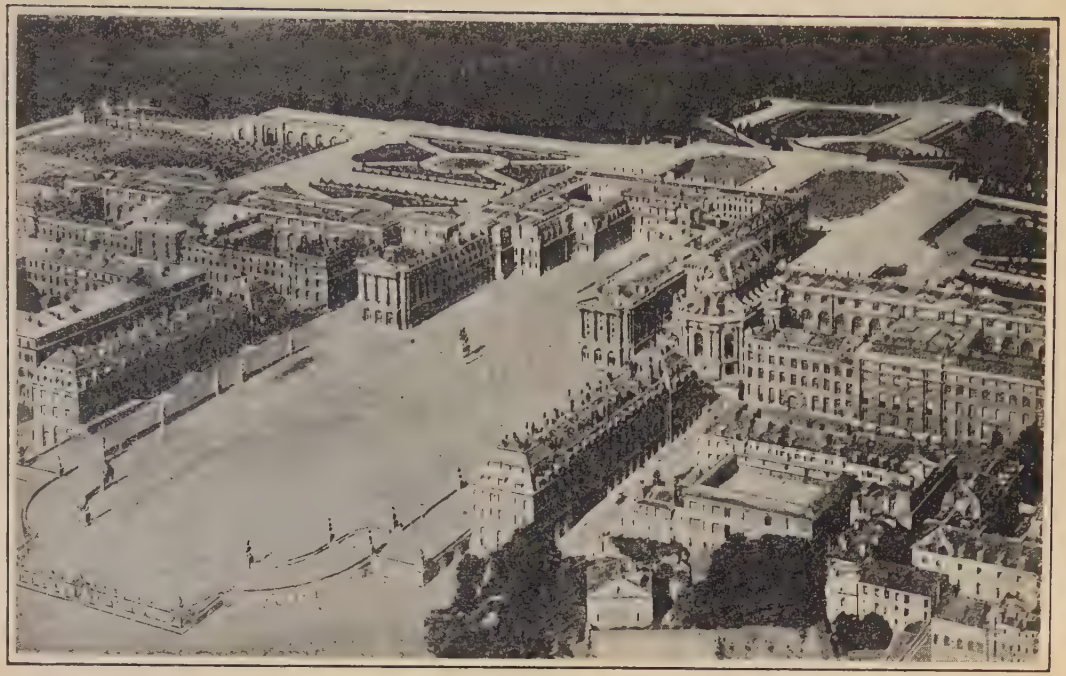
Moreover, the Huguenots, whose efforts to secure equal rights with the Catholics had led to the terrible civil wars of the six-

teenth century, were now reduced in numbers and their fortified towns taken away (§ 372). Under the guidance of her shrewd statesmen France had come out of the Thirty Years' War with enlarged territory and increased influence.

Louis XIV carried the work of these great ministers still farther. He gave that form to the French monarchy which it retained until the French Revolution. He made himself the very mirror of kingship. His marvelous court at Versailles became the model and the despair of other, less wealthy and powerful, princes, who accepted his theory of the absolute power of kings but could not afford to imitate his luxury. By his incessant wars he kept Europe in turmoil for over half a century. The distinguished generals who led his newly organized troops, and the wily diplomats who arranged his alliances and negotiated his treaties, made France feared and respected by even the most powerful of the other European states.

414. The Theory of the "Divine Right of Kings" in France. Louis XIV held the same idea of kingship that James I had tried in vain to induce the English people to accept (§ 395). God had given kings to men, and it was his will that monarchs should be regarded as his lieutenants and that all those subject to them should obey them absolutely, without asking any questions or making any criticisms; for in submitting to their prince they were really submitting to God himself. If the king was good and wise, his subjects should thank the Lord; if he proved foolish, cruel, or perverse, they must accept their evil ruler as a well-deserved and just punishment which God had sent them for their sins. But in no case might they limit his power or rise against him.

415. Different Attitude of English and French toward Absolute Monarchy. Louis XIV had two great advantages over James I. In the first place, the English nation has always shown itself far more reluctant than France to place absolute power in the hands of its rulers. By its Parliament, its courts, and its various declarations of the nation's rights, it had built up traditions which made it impossible for the Stuarts to establish their



General View of the Palace at Versailles

General View of the Palace of Versailles from the Orangery

The hundreds of orange trees which adorn the gardens in summer are carried into this building in the winter to protect them from the cold

claim to be absolute rulers. In France, on the other hand, there was no Great Charter or Bill of Rights; the Estates General did not hold the purse strings (§ 331), and the king was permitted to raise money without asking their permission. When Louis XIV took charge of the government, forty-seven years had passed without a meeting of the Estates General, and a century and a quarter was still to elapse before another call to the representatives of the nation was issued, in 1789.

Moreover, the French people placed far more reliance upon a powerful king than the English, perhaps because they were not protected by the sea from their neighbors, as England was. On every side France had enemies ready to take advantage of any weakness or hesitation which might arise from disagreement between a parliament and the king. So the French felt it best, on the whole, to leave all in the king's hands, even if they suffered at times from his tyranny.

416. Personal Characteristics of Louis XIV. Louis had another great advantage over James. He was a handsome man, of elegant and courtly mien and the most exquisite perfection of manner; even when playing billiards he is said to have retained an air of world mastery. He is described by Saint-Simon, a famous writer of the day, as follows: "The king's great qualities shone more brilliantly by reason of a bearing so unique and incomparable as to lend infinite distinction to his slightest actions. He was the very figure of a hero of so natural and imposing a majesty that it appeared even in his most insignificant gestures and movements, without arrogance but with simple gravity; proportions such as a sculptor would choose to model; a perfect countenance and the grandest air and mien ever vouchsafed to man; all these advantages enhanced by a natural grace lent all his actions charm which has never perhaps been equaled. He was as dignified and majestic in his dressing gown as in his robes of state, or on horseback at the head of his troops."

The first of the Stuarts, on the contrary, was a very awkward man, whose slouching gait, intolerable manners, and boresome conversation were utterly at variance with his lofty pretensions.

Louis added, moreover, to his graceful exterior a sound judgment and quick apprehension. He said neither too much nor too little. He was, for a king, a hard worker, and spent several hours a day attending to the business of government.

It requires, in fact, a great deal of energy and application to be a real despot. In order thoroughly to understand and to solve the problems which constantly face the ruler of a great state, a monarch must rise early and toil late. Louis XIV was greatly aided by the able ministers who sat in his council; but he always retained for himself the place of first minister, for he preferred his own opinions to those of anyone else. Saint-Simon says, "Louis XIV's vanity was without limit or restraint; it colored everything and convinced him that no one even approached him in military talents, in plans and enterprises, or in government."

II. Life at the Court of Versailles

417. The King's Palace at Versailles. Louis XIV was careful that his surroundings should suit the grandeur of his office. His court was magnificent beyond anything that had been dreamed of in the West. He had an enormous palace constructed at Versailles, near Paris, with interminable halls and apartments and with a vast garden stretching away behind it. About this a town was laid out, where those lived who were privileged to be near his Majesty or supply the wants of the royal court. This palace and its outlying buildings, including two or three less gorgeous residences for the king when he occasionally tired of the ceremony of Versailles, probably cost the nation about a hundred million dollars, in spite of the fact that thousands of peasants and soldiers were forced to turn to and work without pay. The furnishings and decorations were as rich and costly as the palace was grand. For over a century this magnificent "château" at Versailles continued to be the home of the French kings and the seat of their government.

Louis XIV

From Rigaud's painting in the Louvre

418. Life at Louis XIV's Court. This splendor and luxury helped to attract the nobility, who no longer lived on their estates in well-fortified castles, planning how they might escape the royal control. They now dwelt in the brightness of the king's countenance. They saw him to bed at night, and in stately procession they greeted him in the morning. It was deemed a high honor to hand him his shirt as he was being dressed or, at dinner, to provide him with a fresh napkin. Only by living close to the king could the courtiers hope to gain favors, pensions, and highly paid positions for themselves and their friends.

419. Art and Literature in the Reign of Louis XIV. It was, however, as a patron of art and literature that Louis XIV gained much of his celebrity. Molière, who was at once a playwright and an actor, delighted the court with comedies in which he dealt amusingly with the shams and weaknesses of his fellow men and women. Men of letters were generously aided by the king with pensions. A magazine, which still exists, was founded for the promotion of science; an astronomical observatory was built at Paris; and the Royal Library, which possessed only about sixteen thousand volumes, began to grow into that great collection of two and a half million volumes —by far the largest in existence—which today attracts scholars to Paris from all parts of the world. Louis XIV and his ministers believed one of the chief objects of any government to be the promotion of art, literature, and science, and the example they set has been followed by almost every modern state.

III. Louis XIV's Wars with his Neighbors

420. Louis XIV's Warlike Enterprises. Unfortunately for France, the king's ambitions were by no means exclusively peaceful. Indeed, he regarded his wars as his chief glory. He employed a carefully reorganized army and his skillful generals in a series of inexcusable attacks on his neighbors, and before he died he had reduced France to the verge of financial ruin.

421. The Invasion of the Netherlands (1667). Louis XIV first turned his attention to the conquest of the Spanish Netherlands, to which he laid claim through his wife, the elder sister of the Spanish king Charles II (1665–1700). He easily took a number of towns on the border of the Netherlands and then turned south and completely conquered Franche-Comté (Map 11), an outlying possession of Spain.

These conquests alarmed Europe and especially Holland, which could not afford to have a barrier between it and France removed, for Louis XIV would be an uncomfortable neighbor. A Triple Alliance, composed of Holland, England, and Sweden, was accordingly organized to induce France to make peace with Spain and return Franche-Comté. Louis, however, broke up the Triple Alliance later by inducing Charles II of England to promise his assistance in a new war with the Dutch.

422. Louis XIV's Invasion of Holland (1672). Louis felt irritated that little Holland should dare to oppose him. At the head of a hundred thousand men he crossed the Rhine (1672) and easily conquered southern Holland. For the moment the Dutch cause appeared to be lost. But William of Orange (later King William III of England) showed the courage of his great ancestor William the Silent: the sluices in the dikes were opened and the country was flooded; so the French army was checked before it could take Amsterdam and advance into the north. The Emperor, Leopold I, sent an army against Louis, and England deserted him and made peace with Holland.

When a general peace was concluded at the end of six years, the chief provisions were that Holland should be left intact and that France should this time retain Franche-Comté. For the ten years following there was no open war; but Louis seized the important free city of Strasbourg and made many other, less conspicuous but equally unwarranted, additions to his territory.

423. The Situation of the Huguenots at the Beginning of Louis XIV's Reign. Louis XIV exhibited as woeful a want of statesmanship in the treatment of his Protestant subjects as in the prosecution of disastrous wars. The Huguenots, deprived

of their former military and political power, had turned to manufacture, trade, and banking. "As rich as a Huguenot" had become a proverb in France. There were, perhaps, a million of them among fifteen million Frenchmen, and they undoubtedly formed by far the most thrifty and enterprising part of the nation. The Catholic clergy, however, did not cease to urge the complete suppression of heresy.

424. Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, and its Results. Louis XIV had scarcely taken the reins of government into his own hands before the perpetual nagging and injustice to which the Protestants had been subjected at all times took a more serious form. Upon one pretense or another their churches were demolished. Children were permitted to renounce Protestantism when they reached the age of seven. Rough dragoons were quartered upon the Huguenots with the hope that the insulting behavior of the soldiers might frighten the Protestants into accepting the religion of the king.

At last Louis XIV was led by his officials to believe that practically all the Huguenots had been converted by these harsh measures. He thought that he could now cease tolerating such heretics as remained. In 1685, therefore, he revoked the Edict of Nantes, and the Protestants thereby became outlaws and their ministers subject to the death penalty. Thousands of the Huguenots succeeded in eluding the vigilance of the royal officials and fled, some to England, some to Prussia, some to America, carrying with them their skill and industry to strengthen France's rivals. This was the last great and terrible example in western Europe of that fierce religious intolerance which had produced the Inquisition and the Massacre of St. Bartholomew.

425. Louis's Operations in the Rhenish Palatinate (1689–1697). Louis XIV now set his heart upon conquering the Palatinate, a Protestant land, to which he easily discovered that he had a claim. The rumor of his intention, and the indignation occasioned in Protestant countries by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, resulted in an alliance against the French king headed by William of Orange. Louis speedily justified the suspicions

of Europe by a frightful devastation of the Palatinate, burning whole towns and destroying many castles, including the exceptionally beautiful one at Heidelberg. Ten years later, however, Louis agreed to a peace which left the map much as it had been before the struggle began. He was preparing for the final and most ambitious undertaking of his life, which precipitated the longest and bloodiest war of all his warlike reign.

426. The Question of the Spanish Succession. The king of Spain, Charles II (see Table IX), was childless and brotherless, and Europe had long been discussing what would become of his vast realms when his sickly existence should come to an end. Louis XIV had married one of his sisters, and the Emperor, Leopold I, another; and these two ambitious rulers had been considering for some time how they might divide the Spanish possessions between the Bourbons (as the descendants of Henry IV of France were called) and the Hapsburgs. But when Charles II died, in 1700, it was discovered that he had left a will in which he made Louis's younger grandson, Philip, the heir to his twenty-two crowns, but on the condition that France and Spain should never be united.

427. Louis's Grandson, Philip, becomes King of Spain. If Philip should become king of Spain, Louis and his family would control all southwestern Europe from Holland to Sicily, as well as a great part of North and South America. This would mean the establishment of an empire more powerful than that of Charles V. It was clear that the disinherited emperor and the ever-watchful William of Orange, now king of England (§§ 408, 409), would never permit this unprecedented extension of French influence. They had already shown themselves ready to make great sacrifices in order to check far less serious aggressions on the part of the French king. Nevertheless, family pride and personal ambition led Louis to accept the Spanish king's will and to risk a terrible war.

428. The War of the Spanish Succession. King William soon succeeded in forming a new Grand Alliance (1701), in which Louis's old enemies—England, Holland, and the Emperor—

were the most important members. The long War of the Spanish Succession was more general than the Thirty Years' War; even in America there was fighting between French and English colonists, which passes in American histories under the name of "Queen Anne's War." All the more important battles went against the French; and after ten years of war, which was rapidly ruining the country by the destruction of its people and its wealth, Louis XIV was willing to consider some compromise. After long discussion a peace was arranged in 1713.

429. The Treaty of Utrecht (1713). The Treaty of Utrecht changed the map of Europe as no previous treaty had done, not even that of Westphalia. Each of the chief combatants got his share of the Spanish booty over which they had been fighting. The Bourbon king Philip V was permitted to retain Spain and its colonies on condition that the Spanish and French crowns should never rest on the same head. To Austria fell the Spanish Netherlands, hereafter called the *Austrian* Netherlands, which continued to form a barrier between Holland and France. Holland received certain fortresses, to make its position still more secure. The Spanish possessions in Italy—Naples and Milan—were also given to Austria, and in this way Austria got the hold on Italy which it retained until 1866. England acquired Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and the Hudson Bay region from France, and so began the expulsion of the French from North America. Besides these American provinces she received the rock and fortress of Gibraltar, which still gives her command of the narrow entrance to the Mediterranean (Map 12).

430. The Development of International Law. The period of Louis XIV is remarkable for the development of international law. The incessant wars and great alliances involving several powers made increasingly clear the need of well-defined rules governing states in their relations with one another both in peace and in war. It was of the utmost importance to determine, for instance, the rights of vessels of neutral powers not engaged in the war, and what should be considered fair conduct in warfare, including the question of the treatment of prisoners.

The first great systematic treatise on international law was published by Grotius in 1625, when the horrors of the Thirty Years' War were impressing men's minds with the necessity of finding some means other than war of settling disputes between nations. While the rules laid down by Grotius and later writers have, as we must sadly admit, by no means put an end to war, they have prevented some conflicts by increasing the ways in which nations may come to an understanding with one another through their ambassadors, without recourse to arms.

Louis XIV outlived his son and his grandson and left a sadly demoralized kingdom to his five-year-old great-grandson, Louis XV (1715–1774). The national treasury was empty; the people were reduced in numbers and were in a miserable state; and the army, once the finest in Europe, was in no condition to gain further victories.

QUESTIONS

I. Describe the condition of France at the accession of Louis XIV. What were Louis's ideas of kingship? Compare the attitude of the English and French toward absolute monarchy.

II. Describe the life at the court of Versailles. How did Louis XIV promote literature and art?

III. What were the general results of Louis's warlike enterprises? What was Louis's attitude toward the Huguenots? What were the results of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes? What were the causes of the War of the Spanish Succession? What were the provisions of the Treaty of Utrecht? Why was Louis's reign a favorable time for the development of international law? What do you understand by "international law"?

CHAPTER XXIV

RUSSIA AND PRUSSIA BECOME EUROPEAN POWERS

I. The Beginnings of Russia; Peter the Great

431. Emergence of Two New European Powers. We must now turn to the study of two European countries which hitherto have not come into our story—Russia and Prussia. During the past two hundred years, however, these states have played an increasingly important part in the affairs of Europe and the world. It was the tiny kingdom of Prussia that gradually increased in power until it became the center of the German Empire, against which most of the nations of the world recently found themselves aligned in the World War. The Bolshevik revolution in Russia—hastened by the war—seemed to many to threaten the whole political, social, and business order. Since 1914 it has been the affairs of these two countries which have given the rest of the world the greatest anxiety and concern. We must therefore turn to the shores of the Baltic and the vast plains of eastern Europe in order to see how these two states grew up and became actors in the great drama of humanity.

432. The Slavic Peoples. In dealing with the history of western Europe we have had little occasion to refer to the Slavic peoples, to whom the Russians, Poles, Bohemians, Serbians, and several other nations of eastern Europe belong. Together they form the most numerous race in Europe, but only recently has their history begun to merge into that of the Western world.

Before the World War the realms of the Tsar which lay in Europe exceeded in extent those of all the other rulers of the continent put together; and yet they were scarcely more than a quarter of his whole dominion, which embraced in addition great stretches of territory in northern and central Asia—an

empire nearly three times the size of the United States. But this vast area was not thickly populated, like the countries farther west. Its great plains, stretching far to the east, had only scattered villages. Moreover, the winter was long and cold in Russia, and the life of the people, who for the most part were very poor, was hard and gloomy.

The Slavs, who belonged to the Indo-European races (§ 49), were settled in southern Russia long before the Christian Era. When the Germans began to invade the Roman Empire in the fifth century, the Slavs followed their example, and many of them settled in the Balkan peninsula as far west as the Adriatic, where their descendants, especially the Serbians, still live. Other Slavic hordes to the north found their way into Germany. The German emperors, beginning with Charlemagne (§ 210), succeeded in pushing them back, but the Bohemians and Moravians, who are Slavs, still hold an advanced position on the borders of Germany.

433. Beginnings of Russia. In the ninth century some of the Northmen invaded the districts to the east of the Baltic, while their relatives were causing grievous trouble in France and England (§§ 216, 249). It is generally supposed that one of their leaders, Rurik, was the first to consolidate the Slavic tribes about Novgorod into a sort of state, in 862. Rurik's successor extended the bounds of the new empire to the south as far as the river Dnieper. The word "Russia" is probably derived from *Rous*, the name given by the neighboring Finns to the Northmen adventurers. Before the end of the tenth century the Greek form of Christianity was introduced and the Russian ruler was baptized. In this way Constantinople exercised somewhat the same influence on Russia that Rome did on the West, and it has been the traditional policy of the Russian government to get control of Constantine's new Rome (§ 174). It was from Constantinople that the Russians took their form of Christianity, and many of their churches recall the domes of Byzantium.

434. Influence of the Tartar Invasion. Russia is geographically nothing more than an extension of the great plain of

northern Asia. It was exposed, therefore, to the invasion of the Tartars, or Mongols, who swept in from the east in the thirteenth century. After conquering northern China and central Asia they overran Russia, which had fallen apart into numerous principalities. The Tartars exacted tribute from the Russians, but left them undisturbed in their laws and religion.

When the Mongol power began to decline, however, and the princes of Moscow had grown stronger, they revolted and threw off the Mongol yoke. But the Tartar occupation had left its mark, for the princes and people continued to follow the habits of their former Mongolian rulers. In 1547 Ivan the Terrible assumed the title of *Tsar*,[1] which was the Russian equivalent of "king" or "emperor."

PETER THE GREAT

Peter was a Romanoff, the fourth of the family of Tsars who held the throne of Russia until the revolution of 1917

435. Peter the Great (1672–1725). When Peter came to the throne, in 1672, he saw that Russia was very much behind the rest of Europe and that his crudely equipped soldiers could never make head against the well-armed and well-disciplined troops of the West. His kingdom was Asiatic in manners and customs, and its government was like that of a Tartar prince. Moreover, Russia had no outlet to the sea and no ships, and without these could never

[1] The word "Tsar," or "Czar," is derived from *Caesar* (German, *Kaiser*), but was used in Slavic books for the title of the kings of antiquity as well as for the Roman emperors. Peter the Great called himself *Imperator*; that is, "Emperor." The Tsar was also known as "Autocrat of all the Russias."

hope to take part in the world's affairs. Peter's two great tasks were, therefore, to introduce Western habits into his barbarous realms and to "make a window," as he expressed it, through which Russia might look abroad. And he succeeded in both these enterprises.

436. Peter's Travels in Europe. In 1697–1698 Peter himself visited Germany, Holland, and England with a view to investigating every art and science of the West, as well as the most approved methods of manufacture. Nothing escaped the keen eyes of this rude, half-savage Northern giant. For a week he put on the wide breeches of a Dutch laborer and worked in the shipyard at Zaandam, near Amsterdam. In England, Holland, and Germany he engaged artisans, scientific men, architects, ship captains, and those versed in artillery and in the training of troops—all of whom he took back with him to aid in the reform and development of Russia.

437. Peter introduces European Customs. Peter made his people give up their cherished oriental beards and long flowing garments. He forced the women of the richer classes, who had been kept in a sort of oriental harem, to come out and meet the men in social assemblies, such as were common in the West. He invited foreigners to settle in Russia and sent young Russians abroad to study. He reorganized the government on the model of a Western kingdom and made over his army in the same way. In spite of his intelligent desire for progress and reform Peter was given to violent bursts of fury, and often shocked his people by the merciless way in which he tortured and executed those who opposed him.

438. Founding of St. Petersburg. Finding that the old capital, Moscow, clung persistently to its ancient habits, Peter prepared to found a new capital for his new Russia. He selected for this purpose a bit of territory on the Baltic which he had conquered from Sweden. Here he built St. Petersburg[1] at

[1] Changed to *Petrograd* in 1914, so that the Russian capital should no longer have a German name. After the death of the Bolshevik leader Lenin, in 1924, it was announced that the name of the city would be *Leningrad*.

enormous expense and colonized it with Russians and foreigners. Russia was at last on the way to become a European power.

439. Russia gains on the Baltic. The next problem was to get control of the provinces lying between the Russian boundary and the Baltic Sea. After much fighting, Peter forced Sweden

NORTHEASTERN EUROPE IN THE TIME OF PETER THE GREAT

to cede to him Livonia, Esthonia, and other Swedish territory which had previously cut Russia off from access to the sea.

For a generation after the death of Peter the Great, Russia fell into the hands of incompetent rulers; but from the time that the great Catherine II (§ 451) came to the throne (1762) the Western powers had always to consider the vast Slavic empire in their great struggles. They had also to reckon with a new kingdom in northern Germany, which was just growing into a great power as Peter began his work. This was Prussia, whose beginnings we must now consider.

II. The Kingdom of Prussia; Frederick the Great

440. Brandenburg acquired by the Hohenzollerns. The origin of the kingdom of Prussia was very humble. In the early fifteenth century the Emperor sold to the unimportant House of Hohenzollern a strip of territory known as the Electorate of Brandenburg, extending some ninety or a hundred miles to the east and to the west of the little town of Berlin. The successive

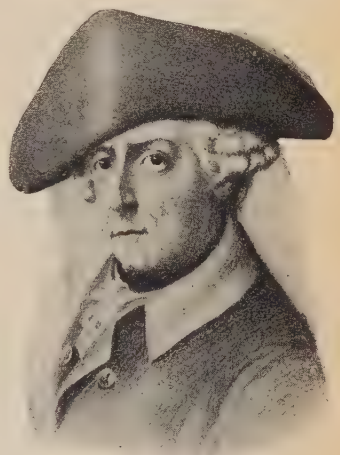
View of Berlin in 1717

Berlin was only a small town until the days of the Great Elector. It increased from about eight thousand inhabitants in 1650 to about twenty thousand in 1688. It is therefore a much more modern city than Paris or London. Indeed, it is about as modern as New York, for most of its great growth has taken place in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries

representatives of the line of Hohenzollerns gradually increased their possessions until the kingdom of Prussia finally embraced, in the nineteenth century, nearly two thirds of Germany.

441. Brandenburg becomes the Kingdom of Prussia. At the opening of the Thirty Years' War (1618) the Hohenzollerns came into possession of East Prussia, a district on the Baltic, far to the east of their other holdings. In 1701 the electors of Brandenburg arranged with the Emperor to have their title changed to "King in Prussia," and in this way the modern kingdom of Prussia originated, embracing all the older Hohenzollern territories as well as the various additions made from time to time.

442. Militarism of Frederick William (1713–1740). The first important ruler of the new kingdom, Frederick William I, was a rough and boorish king who devoted himself to drilling his battalions, hunting, and smoking strong tobacco. He was passionately fond of military life from his childhood. He took special pride in tall soldiers, and collected them at great expense from all parts of Europe. He raised the Prussian army to a size almost equal to that maintained by France or Austria. Moreover, by miserly thrift and entire indifference to luxury, Frederick William treasured up a huge sum of money. Consequently he was able to leave to his son, Frederick the Great, not only an admirable army but an ample supply of gold. Indeed, it was his toil and economy that made possible the achievements of his far more distinguished son.



FREDERICK II OF PRUSSIA, CALLED "THE GREAT"

443. Accession of Frederick II, called "the Great" (1740–1786). In his early years Frederick grieved and disgusted his old father by his dislike for military life and by his interest in books and music. He was a particular admirer of the French and preferred their language to his own. No sooner had he become king, however, than he suddenly developed marvelous energy and skill in warlike enterprises. Chance favored his designs.

444. Frederick's Attack upon Silesia. The emperor Charles VI, the last representative of the direct male line of the Hapsburgs, died in 1740, just a few months before Frederick ascended the throne, leaving only a daughter, Maria Theresa, to inherit his vast and miscellaneous dominions. He had induced the other

European powers to promise to accept his last will, in which he left everything to the young Maria Theresa; but she had no sooner begun to reign than her greedy neighbors prepared to seize her lands. Her greatest enemy was the newly crowned king of Prussia, who at first pretended friendship for her. Frederick determined to seize Silesia, a strip of Hapsburg territory lying to the southeast of Brandenburg, which would increase his dominions by about one third. He accordingly marched his army into the coveted district and occupied the important city of Breslau without declaring war or offering any excuse except a vague claim to a portion of the land.

445. War of the Austrian Succession. France, stimulated by Frederick's example, joined with Bavaria in an attack upon Maria Theresa. It seemed for a time as if her struggle to keep her realm intact would be in vain, but the loyalty of all the various peoples under her scepter was roused by her extraordinary courage and energy. Although the French were driven back, Maria Theresa was forced to grant Silesia to Frederick, in order to induce him to retire from the war. Finally, England and Holland joined in an alliance for maintaining the balance of power, for they had no desire to see France annex the Austrian Netherlands. A few years later, however (1748), all the powers, tired of the war,—which is known as the War of the Austrian Succession,—agreed to lay down their arms, and peace was maintained for a few years.

446. The Seven Years' War; the Alliance between France and Austria. Maria Theresa was by no means reconciled to the loss of Silesia, and she began to lay her plans for expelling the perfidious Frederick and regaining her lost territory. This led to one of the most important wars in modern history, in which not only almost every European power joined, but which involved the whole world, from the Indian rajahs of Hindustan to the colonists of Virginia and New England. This Seven Years' War (1756–1763) will be considered in its broader aspects in the next chapter. We shall mention here only the part played in it by the king of Prussia.

PRUSSIA
at the Accession of
FREDERICK THE GREAT
(with dates of acquisition)

PRUSSIA
at the Death of
FREDERICK THE GREAT
in 1786

Maria Theresa's ambassador at Paris was so skillful in his negotiations with the French court that in 1756 he induced it, in spite of its two hundred years of hostility to the House of Hapsburg, to enter into an alliance with Austria against Prussia. Russia, Sweden, and Saxony also agreed to join in a concerted attack on Prussia. Their armies, coming as they did from every point of the compass, threatened the complete annihilation of Frederick and his kingdom.

447. Frederick's Victorious Defense. However, it was in this war that Frederick earned his title of "the Great," and showed himself the equal of the ablest generals the world has seen. Undaunted by the overwhelming numbers of his enemies and by the loss of several battles, Frederick in 1757 defeated the French and his German enemies in the most famous, perhaps, of his battles, at Rossbach, in Saxony. A month later he routed the Austrians.

Money paid to him by the English government enabled him to keep up the fight. The accession of a new Tsar, who was an ardent admirer of Frederick, led Russia to conclude peace with Prussia, whereupon Maria Theresa reluctantly agreed to give up once more her struggle with her inveterate enemy. Shortly afterwards England and France came to terms, and a general settlement was made at Paris in 1763 (§§ 473, 479).

III. How Poland was absorbed by her Neighbors (1772, 1793, and 1795)

448. The Question of West Prussia. Frederick's success in seizing and holding one of Austria's finest provinces did not satisfy him. The central portions of his kingdom—Brandenburg, Silesia, and Pomerania—were completely cut off from East Prussia by a considerable tract known as West Prussia, which belonged to the kingdom of Poland. The upper map on the preceding page will show how great must have been Frederick's temptation to fill this gap, especially as he well knew that Poland was in no condition to defend its possessions.

449. Weakness of Poland. With the exception of Russia, Poland was the largest kingdom in Europe. It covered an immense plain with no natural boundaries, and the population, which was very thinly scattered, belonged to several races. Besides the Poles themselves there were Germans in the cities of West Prussia, and Russians in Lithuania. The Jews were very numerous everywhere, forming half the population in some of the towns. The Poles were usually Catholics, while the Germans were Protestants, and the Russians adhered to the Greek Church. These differences in religion, added to those of race, created endless problems and dissensions. They explain, moreover, many of the difficulties involved in the attempt to reestablish an independent Polish republic after the great World War.

The government of Poland was the worst imaginable. Instead of having developed a strong monarchy, as her neighbors—Prussia, Russia, and Austria—had done, she had remained in a state of feudal anarchy, which the nobles had taken the greatest pains to perpetuate. They limited their kings in such a way that they had no power either to maintain order or to defend the country from attack.

The kingship was not hereditary in Poland; whenever the ruler died the nobles assembled and chose a new one, commonly a foreigner. These elections were disorderly, and the various European powers regularly interfered, by force or bribery, to secure the election of a candidate who, they believed, would favor their interests.

450. Polish Nobles and Peasants. The nobles in Poland were numerous. There were, perhaps, a million and a half of them, most of whom were very poor, owning only a trifling bit of land. There was a saying that the poor noble's dog, even if he sat in the middle of his master's estate, was sure to have his tail upon a neighbor's land. There was no middle class except in the few German towns. The peasants were miserable indeed; they had sunk from serfs to slaves, over whom their lords had even the right of life and death.

451. First Partition of Poland (1772). It required no great insight to foresee that Poland was in danger of falling a prey to her greedy and powerful neighbors,—Russia, Prussia, and Austria,—who clamped in the unfortunate kingdom on all sides and coveted her territory.

The ruler of Russia was now the famous Catherine II, who proved herself one of the most efficient of queens in forwarding

A Cartoon of the Partition of Poland

Catherine II, Joseph II, and Frederick II are pointing out the part of the map of Poland they each propose to take. The king of Poland is trying to hold his crown from falling off his head. What is left of Poland on the map?

the interests of her own kingdom. She arranged with Frederick the Great to prevent any improvement in Poland and to keep up and encourage the disorder. Finally, the rulers of Prussia, Russia, and Austria agreed, in 1772, each to take a slice of the unhappy kingdom.

Austria was assigned a strip inhabited by almost three million Poles and Russians and thus added two new kinds of people and two new languages to her already varied collection of races

and tongues. Prussia was given a smaller piece, but it was the coveted West Prussia, which she needed to fill out her boundaries, and its inhabitants were to a considerable extent Germans and Protestants. Russia's strip, on the east, was inhabited entirely by Russians (Map 13).

452. Second and Third Partitions (1793, 1795). Russia and Prussia continued to promote disorder in Poland; twenty years later they declared that they could not put up any longer with such a dangerous neighbor and proceeded to a second partition. Prussia cut deep into Poland, added a million and a half of Poles to her subjects, and acquired the towns of Thorn, Danzig, and Posen. Russia's gains were three millions of people, who at least belonged to her own race. Two years later the Polish king was compelled to abdicate; and the remnants of the dismembered kingdom were divided, after much bitter contention, among Austria, Russia, and Prussia. In the three partitions which, until the coming of the World War in our own day, blotted out the kingdom of Poland from the map of Europe, Russia received nearly twice the combined shares of Austria and Prussia.

IV. The Austrian Realms; Maria Theresa

453. The Hapsburgs in Austria. While the Hohenzollerns of Prussia from their capital at Berlin had been extending their power over northern Germany, the great House of Hapsburg, established in the southeastern corner of Germany, with its capital at Vienna, had been grouping together, by conquest or inheritance, the vast realm over much of which it ruled down to the end of the World War, in 1918. It will be remembered that shortly after he became Emperor, Charles V ceded to his brother, Ferdinand I, the German or Austrian possessions of the House of Hapsburg (§ 360), while he himself retained the Spanish, Burgundian, and Italian dominions. Ferdinand, by a fortunate marriage with the heiress of the kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary, greatly increased his territory. Hungary was, how-

ever, almost completely conquered by the Turks at that time. Till the end of the seventeenth century the energies of the Austrian rulers were largely absorbed in a long struggle against the Mohammedans, who threatened central Europe for many years (Map 11 and Table VI).

454. Conquests of the Turks in Europe. A Turkish people from western Asia had, at the opening of the fourteenth century, established themselves in western Asia Minor under their leader, Othman (d. 1326). It was from him that they derived their name of *Ottoman* Turks, to distinguish them from the *Seljuk* Turks, with whom the crusaders had come into contact. The leaders of the Ottoman Turks showed great energy. They not only extended their Asiatic territory far toward the east, and later into Africa, but they gained a footing in Europe as early as 1353. They gradually occupied the territory about Constantinople, and a hundred years later succeeded in capturing the ancient capital of the Eastern Empire, which came under their sway in the year 1453.

Maria Theresa

This advance of the Turks naturally aroused grave fears in the states of western Europe lest they too might be deprived of their independence. The brunt of the defense against the common foe devolved upon Venice and the German Hapsburgs, who for nearly two centuries carried on an almost continuous war with the Turks. As late as 1683 the Mohammedans collected a large force and besieged Vienna, which might very well have fallen into their hands had it not been for the timely assistance which the city received from the king of Poland. From this

time on the power of the Turks in Europe rapidly decreased. They gradually lost their hold, and the Hapsburgs were able to regain the whole territory of Hungary and Transylvania. Their possession of these lands, which they held until 1918, was recognized by the Sultan in 1699.

455. Heterogeneous Population under the Hapsburgs. The conquest of Silesia by Frederick the Great was more than a severe blow to the pride of Maria Theresa; for, since it was inhabited by Germans, its loss lessened the Hapsburg power inside the Empire. In extent of territory the Hapsburgs more than made up for Silesia by the partitions of Poland; but since the Poles were an alien race they added one more difficulty to the very troublesome problem of ruling so many various peoples, each of whom had a different language and different customs and institutions. The Hapsburg possessions were inhabited by Germans in Austria proper, a Slav people (the Czechs) mixed with Germans in Bohemia and Moravia, Poles in Galicia, Hungarians or Magyars (along with Rumanians and smaller groups of other peoples) in Hungary, Croats and Slovenes (both Slavs) in the south, Italians in Milan and Tuscany, and Flemish and Walloons in the Netherlands.

A map will be found in Chapter XXXIX where the various peoples of Austria-Hungary are shown as they existed at the opening of the twentieth century. It will help to make this complicated situation clearer.

The problems which confronted Maria Theresa and her son Joseph II were much more difficult than those of France or England. Poles, Italians, Magyars, and Germans could never be united into one state by such common interests as Englishmen or Frenchmen have felt so keenly in the last two centuries. Instead of fusing together to form a nation, the peoples ruled over by the Hapsburgs have been on such bad terms that there has been constant friction, and even rebellion in the nineteenth century against the government at Vienna. When the Hapsburgs became involved in the terrible disaster of the World War, these groups finally split apart, forming separate nations.

QUESTIONS

I. Why is the study of the development of Russia and Prussia of special interest today? What peoples belong to the Slavic race? In what portions of eastern Europe were the Slavs settled at the time of the barbarian invasions? Tell what you can of the early history of Russia. What were some of the results of the Tartar invasion in Russia? What were the boundaries of Russia upon the accession of Peter the Great? What territory did he add? What reforms and changes did Peter introduce?

II. How did the elector of Brandenburg come to be called king of Prussia? How did the early Hohenzollerns undertake to develop Prussia? Explain the circumstances which led to the War of the Austrian Succession. Give an account of the Seven Years' War. Show why so many nations became involved in the war. How did Frederick earn his title of "the Great"?

III. What were the internal weaknesses of Poland which made her an easy prey for her neighbors? Describe the partitions of Poland with the use of the map.

IV. Review briefly the history of the Hapsburgs. What were their possessions at the time of Maria Theresa? Why has Austria always been concerned in the affairs of Turkey? What peoples were under the rule of the Hapsburgs?

CHAPTER XXV

THE EXPANSION OF EUROPEAN CONTROL OVER FOREIGN LANDS

I. How Europeans began to Trade and Settle in Distant Countries

456. How we enjoy the Products of the Whole Earth. One of the most striking features of our life today is the great number and variety of articles of food, clothing, and decoration that we enjoy which come from all parts of the world. We do not ordinarily realize how many miles these luxuries have traveled, nor the invention and enterprise which have been necessary to bring the whole globe within our reach. Our coffee may come from Brazil or Java, our tea from China or Ceylon, our pepper from Sumatra, our nutmeg, cloves, and other spices from the Malay Archipelago, our cloth from England, our dyes and perfumes from Germany, our rubber from Africa and South America, our silk from Japan, our rugs from Persia or Asia Minor, and our precious stones from India or Africa. These and many other articles of everyday use form a part of the vast exchange of products that is constantly going on between most of the nations of the earth.

457. World Trade made Possible by the Discoveries of the Fifteenth Century. The beginning of this world trade lies far back in the fifteenth century. Those early explorers who first braved the terrors of unknown seas (§§ 320 ff.) prepared the way for many others who followed them, searching for new lands, new business, new luxuries, and sometimes new homes. As the possibilities of these hitherto-unknown lands gradually dawned upon the European countries each nation

became more and more eager and determined to obtain as large a share as possible of all this new wealth and opportunity.

458. Vast Extent of the European Colonial Possessions. The long and disastrous wars of the eighteenth century were much more than the disputes of rival monarchs over the territory of Europe. They were really a struggle for power and trade in the lands beyond the sea, for it was in Asia, America, and Africa and not in Europe that the future importance of these rival European states was to be decided. Since the seventeenth century the affairs of the countries of Europe have been greatly influenced by the demands of their merchants and the success or failure of their colonies in fighting rival nations or alien peoples thousands of miles from London, Paris, or Amsterdam. The great manufacturing towns of England—Leeds, Manchester, and Birmingham—owe their prosperity today to the success of English merchants, soldiers, and sailors who have established and protected English interests in India, China, and Africa. Liverpool, Amsterdam, and Trieste, with their long lines of docks and warehouses, would dwindle away if their trade should be cut off from distant lands and confined to their own country and their European neighbors.

Although Europe includes scarcely one twelfth of the land upon the globe, nevertheless over three fifths of the world is today either occupied by peoples of European origin or ruled by European states. For instance, the possessions of France in Asia and Africa exceed the entire area of Europe, while the British Empire, on whose realms the sun never sets, includes one fifth of the world's dry land and over four hundred millions of people. How European countries came to claim a large part of the world for themselves, and to go to war with one another for the control of trade and colonies in distant lands, is one of the most amazing stories of modern times.

459. The Portuguese control the Trade with the East in the Sixteenth Century. The Greeks and Romans, and later the Italian cities, had carried on, as we know, a trade in silks, spices, and precious stones from India, the Malay Archipelago, and

China, but they really knew very little of the world beyond northern Africa and Western Asia, for the products of the East were brought as far as the coast cities of the eastern Mediterranean by traders who were familiar with lands and seas as yet unvisited by Europeans. Much that had been known earlier about these distant countries had been forgotten during the Middle Ages, but slowly the interest in the East revived, and travelers like Marco Polo (§ 321) did much to add to the scanty knowledge handed down from ancient times.

The voyages which had brought India and America within the ken of Europe during the fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries were mainly undertaken by the Portuguese and Spanish; and for a time these countries claimed the right of dividing the new world empire between themselves. When Vasco da Gama returned home in 1498 with a precious cargo, after rounding the Cape of Good Hope, the Portuguese regarded the East Indies as their own (§ 323). Other expeditions soon followed, and the Portuguese made settlements on the Indian peninsula and even reached the long-sought Spice Islands, three thousand miles farther away (see Map 10 for explanation of the term "Indies").

For nearly a century (between 1500 and 1600) the Portuguese maintained their supremacy on the Eastern seas and monopolized the trade between the Orient and Europe. As the prosperity of the Italian cities declined, Lisbon grew in wealth and importance. But Portugal was too small to defend the vast territory to which she laid claim and was unable to keep other nations from seeking a share in so rich an enterprise once their attention had become attracted to it. It was another little nation, however, the Dutch, which proved to be energetic enough to get possession of Portugal's trade and establish herself in many of the settlements which the Portuguese had built up.

460. The Brief Glory of Spain. While Portugal was busy in the East Indies the interest of Spain was centered in her vast empire in America. The untold wealth of her gold and silver mines in Mexico and Peru, and her enormous territory in the New World, had raised her to a place of supreme importance in

Europe. Moreover, in 1580 Philip II conquered Portugal and added to Spain's resources in Europe and America the control of the possessions of Portugal and her trade with the East. But for all this the glory of Spain was short-lived. Under Philip II the empire was completely mismanaged, the "Invincible Armada" was destroyed, and with it Spain's supremacy on the sea. The wealth of the mines in America was wasted by the Spanish grandees and finally became exhausted; the high taxes ruined the trade with the colonies; and the lax administration at home, together with the taxes, ruined business and the prosperity of the mother country. Finally, the fanaticism of Philip, and the inhuman treatment of the Netherlands (§§ 361 ff.), caused the revolt of Spain's richest and thriftiest provinces. By the end of the century Spain sank to the rank of a secondary power. The Spaniards had proved to be gold-seekers and not colonizers, and their great and magnificent empire had slipped away forever.

461. The Dutch supplant the Portuguese in India. The entrance of the Dutch into the struggle for commerce and colonies was largely due to the unhappy experience they had had with Spain. The long and cruel persecution by Philip II drove the Dutch to seek some redress on the sea by capturing if they might some Spanish treasure fleets on their way from America to the mother country. They also wished to find if possible the northern passage to the East Indies. Moreover, in 1594 the port of Lisbon, then under Spanish control, was closed to the Dutch, although they had been for years the chief distributors in northern Europe of the products from the East which were landed at Lisbon. They therefore decided to begin to trade with the Orient on their own account.

The Dutch had little to fear when in 1595 they sent out their first expedition to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope, for the Spanish were more concerned in policing the sea over which the wealth from America was carried than in guarding the trade routes of their dependency Portugal. The success of the first expedition aroused great enthusiasm for business adventure among the Dutch, and by 1602 from sixty to seventy ves-

sels had sailed to India and the Malay Archipelago. In the same year the Dutch East India Company was formed to regulate and protect the growing Dutch trade. This company rapidly established trading houses and seized one by one the most favorable stations belonging to the Portuguese, until by the close of the seventeenth century only Goa and a few minor posts remained of the vast commercial empire which the Portuguese had built up.

462. The English become Rivals of the Dutch; the English East India Company. Meanwhile the energetic Dutch discovered that the English were not inclined to sit idly by and have their neighbors reap an enormous profit from the goods they brought to England to sell. As early as 1591 some English traders had sent out an expedition from Plymouth. Although their venture was not successful, London merchants had in 1600 organized the East India Company and been granted a charter by the government which gave them the monopoly of the Indian trade, with the power to govern themselves and defend themselves against rivals. The English succeeded in establishing a number of agencies in India, including one near Calcutta, and built a fort at Madras (1640).

But the Dutch claimed exclusive right to the islands where the rarest spices grew. Moreover, they owned half the merchant ships of Europe and enjoyed a large part of the handsome profit of the carrying trade between the East and Europe. Hoping to reduce the Dutch trade and encourage English shipping, Parliament in 1651 passed a law called the Navigation Act, which provided that only English vessels should be permitted to bring to England commodities produced in Asia, Africa, and America.

463. Wars between the English and the Dutch. The result was a short commercial war between the Dutch and the English, fought at sea, in which sometimes one fleet, sometimes the other, gained the upper hand. This conflict is notable as the first example of a distinctly commercial struggle. Nations were beginning to go to war over trade instead of over religion.

A few years later the king, Charles II, granted a new charter to the East India Company which gave it a monopoly of the trade with the right to coin money, administer justice, punish independent English merchants who sailed ships into Eastern waters on their own account, and finally to wage war and make

A Naval Battle between Sailing Ships

This is the way the rival navies of Holland, France, and England fought in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Note how the ships sail right up to the foe and fire broadsides at close range. The large ship in front has rammed an enemy ship; this was often done, not with the idea of sinking it, since the heavily timbered wooden ships did not sink so easily as ironclads will, but in order that a boarding party could clamber over upon its decks. Thus naval warfare still resembled somewhat the method of fighting of the Greeks and Romans

peace with non-Christian states. The Navigation Act of 1651 was reënforced by additional provisions to the effect that not only must the ships be owned and manned by Englishmen, but they must be built in England as well. English agents were ordered to prevent the Dutch from getting any of the English trade. Charles II also dispatched troops to the Company's

settlements to help defend them against attacks from Europeans and natives. He also turned over to the Company the town of Bombay, which his Portuguese wife had brought him as her dowry. This soon (1685) became the headquarters of the Company and is now the second greatest center of Indian trade.

The old war with Holland was renewed under Charles II. The two nations were very evenly matched on the sea, but in 1664 the English succeeded in seizing some of the West Indies from the Dutch, as well as their colony upon Manhattan Island, which was renamed New York in honor of the king's brother, the Duke of York. On the other hand, the Dutch expelled the English from their last foothold in the Spice Islands (1667).

Soon after still another war the Dutch governor, William of Orange, became King William III of England (1688), and the Dutch, exhausted in their long wars with Louis XIV, gave up their attempt to oppose the English in India. While no longer dominating the seas, the Dutch still held important possessions and enjoyed a flourishing trade at the opening of the eighteenth century.

464. The Dutch during the Eighteenth Century. The business of the Dutch East India Company was so profitable that the shares continued to be worth two or three times their original value. The Dutch held the Cape of Good Hope as a halfway post to India, the island of Ceylon, several important settlements in India, and dominion or predominance in the Spice Islands, Java, Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, the Malaccan peninsula, and Siam. They monopolized the trade with Japan and the greater part of the spice business (Map 10). Nevertheless, their progress was checked, and it was not they but the French who were now to fight with England for the control of India and North America.[1]

465. The French get a Start in India. French merchants had for some fifty years been going to India, but it was not until

[1] The Dutch, in spite of losses in later wars, still hold Java, Sumatra, Celebes, the Moluccas, portions of Borneo, and other islands, comprising an area of over 700,000 square miles with a population of some 45,000,000.

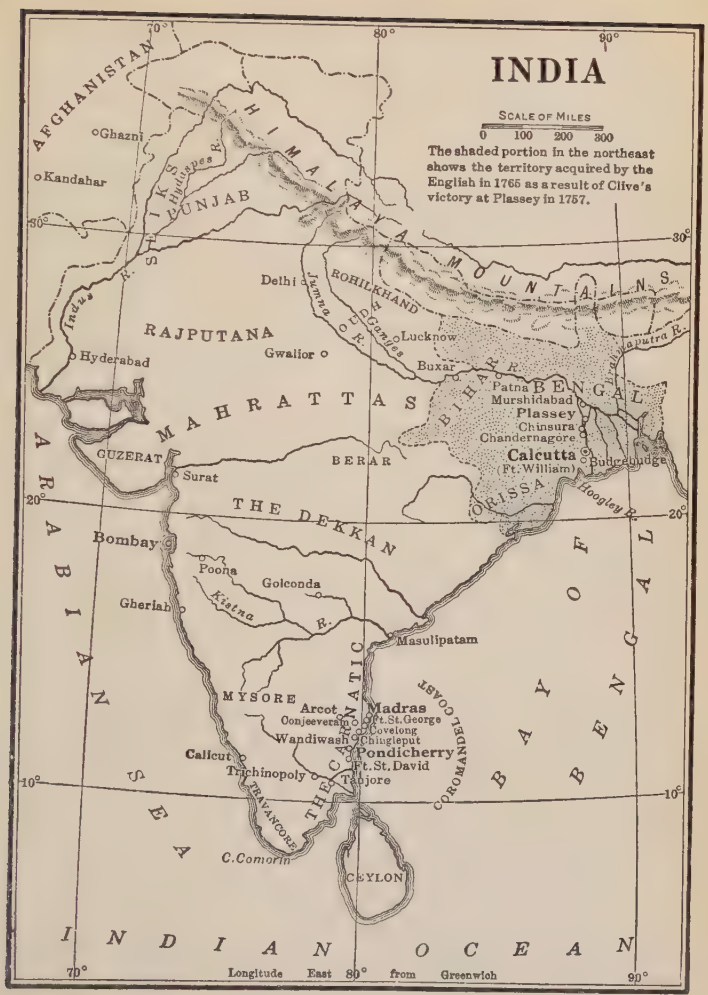
1664 that Louis XIV chartered the French East India Company, granting it a monopoly of trade for fifty years, the right to cast cannons, raise troops, and garrison posts, and to declare war and make peace in the name of their sovereign. The king also assisted the Company with large grants from the royal treasury in overcoming the difficulties which the enterprise necessarily involved.

In 1669 the first French expedition under the new company arrived at Surat, where they established an agency beside those of the English and Portuguese, from which they sent out their agents in every direction. Three years later the French became the rivals of the English in Bengal by fortifying themselves at Chandernagore just north of Calcutta. They also purchased, on the southeastern shores of India, a plot of ground of about one hundred and thirteen acres, upon which was the village of Pondicherry, destined to be the capital of the French dominions in India.

In order to follow the approaching struggle between the English and French companies for the control of India, we must pause a moment to consider this extraordinary country and the conditions which existed at the opening of the eighteenth century.

II. The Struggle of France and England for Control in India

466. India Long Known to the Europeans. Although in our history of western Europe we have not had occasion to describe the civilization which had developed on the great peninsula which we call India, nevertheless, as far back as the days of Alexander the Great the existence of this land beyond the Indus River had been known to Europeans through the works of the scientists and historians who accompanied Alexander on his expedition to the Far East (§ 108). It was believed to be a country abounding in wealth. In the thirteenth century Marco Polo had called it "the richest and noblest country on earth." It


INDIA
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300
The shaded portion in the northeast shows the territory acquired by the English in 1765 as a result of Clive's victory at Plassey in 1757.
AFGHANISTAN
Ghazni
Kandahar
HIMALAYA MOUNTAINS
Hydaspes R.
SIKS
PUNJAB
Indus R.
Delhi
ROHILKHAND
Jumna R.
Ganges R.
Lucknow
RAJPUTANA
Hyderabad
Gwalior
Buxar
Brahmaputra R.
BIHAR
Patna
BENGAL
Murshidabad
Plassey
Chinsura
Chandernagore
Calcutta
(Ft. William)
Budge Budge
Hooghly R.
MAHRATTAS
GUZERAT
Surat
BERAR
ORISSA
THE DEKKAN
Bombay
Poona
Golconda
Gheriah
Kistna R.
Masulipatam
ARABIAN SEA
MYSORE
Arcot
Madras
Conjeeveram
Ft. St. George
Covelong
Wandiwash
Chingleput
Pondicherry
Ft. St. David
Calicut
Trichinopoly
Tanjore
THE CARNATIC
COROMANDEL COAST
BAY OF BENGAL
TRAVANCORE
C. Comorin
CEYLON
INDIAN OCEAN
70°
80°
90°
30°
20°
10°
Longitude East 80° from Greenwich

was, as we know, the chief goal of the early explorers, and from the time that Vasco da Gama returned home with his precious cargo (1498) it became the unfortunate object of envy and war between rival European nations.

467. Vast Extent of India. At the opening of the eighteenth century India was a vast empire swarming with millions of people, the seat of an ancient and highly elaborate civilization. It had given birth to philosophies and religions which had dominated the lives of myriads of men not only in India itself but in China and Japan. Geographically, India occupies the triangular peninsula which juts southward from the continent of Asia and is separated by lofty mountain ranges from the countries to the north and west. One may gain an idea of its extent by laying the map of Hindustan upon that of the United States. If the southernmost point, Cape Comorin, be placed over New Orleans, Calcutta will lie nearly over New York City, and Bombay in the neighborhood of Des Moines, Iowa.

The Indian peninsula is separated into three great divisions. In the extreme north are the regions of the Himalaya Mountains and their foothills. South of these are plains and the valleys of a network of rivers draining into the mighty Ganges, which flows southeastward for fifteen hundred miles into the Bay of Bengal, refreshing and fertilizing one of the most thickly populated districts of the world. The third region is the tableland of southern India, broken in many places, especially near the seacoast, by minor mountain ranges and drained principally by rivers running eastward into the Bay of Bengal.

While all variations of climate may be found in India, from the extreme heat of the tropical regions near the equator to the temperate climate of the north and the eternal winter of the Himalayas, generally speaking the heat and humidity of the atmosphere make the country rather unsuited to men accustomed to the colder and drier climes of the North. India yields almost all the mineral and vegetable products which are the objects of modern commerce. The northern valleys of the Ganges and its tributaries furnish cotton, tobacco, indigo, spices, dyes, opium,

silk, rice, and grain; while the southern table-lands, in addition to grain and cotton, afford a variety of minerals and precious stones, among which are the famous diamonds of Golconda.

468. Mixture of Races in India. India has long been and still is the home of many peoples, differing greatly in race, language, religion, and civilization, from savages to the highly cultivated Brahmins. The rich plains of India have been repeatedly overrun by invaders, and the great mixture of peoples which has resulted, together with the size and independent character of the various sections of the empire, makes its history very difficult to understand.

469. The Hindus. The Hindus form the most important portion of the population. They speak various dialects derived from the ancient Sanskrit, a language related to Greek and Latin. They penetrated into India in the remote past and drove the original inhabitants into the mountains or reduced them to servitude. The Hindus developed a noble literature, which is studied in the universities of western Europe, and their religious teachings find adherents today in England and America. It was they who appear to have invented the nine arithmetical figures and the cipher, which were introduced into Europe by the Arabs and are now used throughout the civilized world (§ 195).

470. The *Castes*. The Hindus are separated into rigid social classes or *castes*, the highest being that of the Brahmins, or priests, a class that furnishes the poets, lawgivers, and scholars; the Rajputs or warriors come next; then the Vaisyas or husbandmen and merchants; and a fourth caste, composed of laborers and servants. Lowest of all are the Pariahs, who are not supposed to belong to any *caste*, but are regarded as mere *outcasts* from society. Familiar association between those of different castes is regarded as sinful, and one can never escape from the group into which one is born. Besides the Hindus there are many Mohammedans who have swept into India from the north in wave after wave, adding to the general confusion of races and religions.

471. The Mongolian Emperors of Hindustan. A generation after Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape a Mongolian conqueror, Baber, had established his empire in India. The dynasty of Mongolian rulers[1] which he founded was able to keep the whole country under its control for nearly two centuries; then, after the death of the Great Mogul Aurungzeb, in 1707, their empire began to fall apart, in much the same way that Charlemagne's had done. Like the counts and dukes of the Carolingian period, the emperor's officials, the subahdars and nawabs (nabobs), and the rajahs (Hindu princes who had been subjugated by the Mongols) had gradually got the power in their respective districts into their own hands. Although the emperor, or Great Mogul, as the English called him, continued to maintain himself in his capital of Delhi, he could no longer be said to rule the country at the opening of the eighteenth century, when the French and English were beginning to turn their attention seriously to his coasts and were ready to fight one another for control in India.

CLIVE

472. Dupleix and Clive in India. In the middle of the eighteenth century the governor of the French station of Pondicherry was Dupleix, a soldier of great energy, who proposed to drive out the English and firmly establish the power of France over Hindustan. His chances of success were greatly increased by the quarrels among the native rulers. Dupleix had very few French soldiers, but he began the enlistment of the natives,

[1] Baber claimed to be descended from an earlier invader, the famous Timur (or Tamerlane), who died in 1405. The so-called Mongol (or Mogul) emperors were really Turkish rather than Mongolian in origin.

a custom eagerly adopted by the English. These native soldiers, whom the English called *sepoys*, were taught to fight in the manner of Europeans.

The English colonists, in spite of the fact that they were mainly traders, discovered among the clerks employed by the East India Company in Madras a leader equal in military skill and energy to Dupleix himself. Robert Clive, who as a schoolboy is said to have organized his companions into an army, was but twenty-five years old at this time. He drilled a large force of sepoys and won their esteem by his astonishing bravery.

473. Clive makes English Influence Supreme in India. At the moment that the Seven Years' War was beginning in Europe (1756), bad news reached Clive from the English settlement of Calcutta, about a thousand miles to the northeast of Madras. The nawab of Bengal had seized the property of some English merchants and imprisoned one hundred and forty-six Englishmen in a little room, — the Black Hole of Calcutta, — where most of them died of suffocation before morning. Clive hastened to Bengal, and with a little army of eleven hundred Europeans and twenty-one hundred sepoys he gained a great victory at Plassey, in 1757, over the nawab's army of fifty thousand men. Clive then replaced the nawab of Bengal by a man whom he believed to be friendly to the English. Before the Seven Years' War was over, the English had won Pondicherry and deprived the French of all their former influence in the region of Madras.

Although France received back the towns which the English had taken from her, she had permanently lost her influence with the native rulers, while Clive had made the English name greatly feared among them. The forces of the English East India Company under Clive not only defeated their rivals, the French, but they had begun the conquest of Bengal, which was to form the center from which the British power was, in the nineteenth century, to expand over the whole Indian peninsula. (For the further history of India see pages 427 ff.)

III. The Rivalry of the French and English in North America; England becomes Queen of the Ocean

474. The French Empire in America. It was not in India alone that the great struggle between France and England for supremacy in commerce and colonies was to be decided. At the same time that these rival powers were contending for control in India, French and English colonists in America were fighting one another for the mastery of the New World.

French explorers had early found the shores of North America, and Jacques Cartier, seeking the East Indies, had instead discovered the St. Lawrence River (1534–1535) and had attempted to make a little settlement on the present site of Montreal. But it was not until 1608—the year after the English landed at Jamestown—that the first French colony was established by Samuel de Champlain, on the huge promontory of Quebec. Shortly after this Champlain was unfortunately persuaded by the Algonquin Indians to attack their enemies, the powerful Iroquois, who inhabited the region to the south from Lake Erie to the Hudson River. Sailing into the lake which today bears his name, Champlain with one volley scattered the Iroquois who lived on its banks.

This incident had important consequences, for these tribes were forever afterward hostile to the French and became allies of the Dutch and English, whom they aided against the French. The French, therefore, could never venture with safety into their territory, but were forced to make their way westward along the northern shores of the Great Lakes.

Champlain discovered lakes Ontario and Huron and the Ottawa valley. His followers for a generation gradually penetrated the great wilderness of the northwest and even reached Hudson Bay. In 1663 all the land that the French had discovered became a province of the French crown. Father Marquette, a Jesuit missionary, and Joliet, a merchant, explored in 1673 a part of the Mississippi River. But a French nobleman, La Salle, after years of misfortune, hardship, and jealousy at

home, at last succeeded in making his way down the great river. On the shores of the Gulf of Mexico he planted the white standard of France (1682), and named the new country Louisiana in honor of his king, Louis XIV. The city of New Orleans was founded, near the mouth of the river, in 1718, and the French established a chain of forts between it and Montreal (Map 16).

475. Development of French Colonies hampered by Home Government. In spite of the bravery of French explorers the colonies of France grew slowly. In the first place the government at home kept a strict watch over them and never permitted any of the self-government which the English colonies enjoyed. None but Frenchmen and Roman Catholics were allowed to settle in "New France." The land was all in the hands of great proprietors, who rented vast estates for cultivation. The government not only directed who should live in the American colonies but what taxes should be paid, what the religion should be, what tools should be used, what seeds should be planted, and how old the young people should be before they were allowed to marry. While the population of the English colonies increased to 400,000 in the seventeenth century, the inhabitants of the French colonies numbered only 80,000.

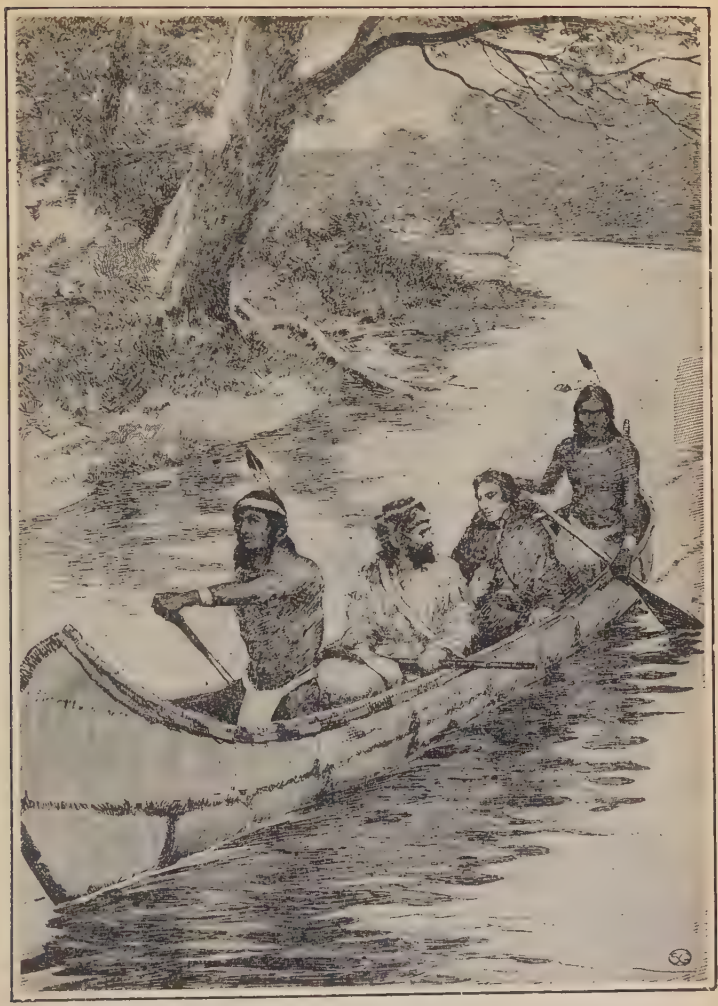
476. The English Colonies. The English colonies, as we know, lay along the Atlantic coast and occupied a small area compared with the vast territory belonging to the French. The first settlement was made in 1607 at Jamestown, in Virginia. After some years of hardship the settlers turned to farming and found they could earn a good living from their fertile soil. In 1620 a little band of men and women,—the Pilgrims,—who had come to seek a new land where they could be free to worship God as they saw fit (§ 399), landed on Plymouth Rock. The richest and most important colony in the North was that of the Massachusetts Bay Company, founded in 1628 by a group of prosperous Puritan gentlemen. Other settlements followed in Maryland, Pennsylvania, and elsewhere. The colonies owed their growth partly to the influx of refugees,—Puritans, Catholics, and Quakers,—all of whom had fled from religious persecu-

tion in the Old World. On the other hand, there were many who came not for religious reasons but to better their fortunes in a new land.

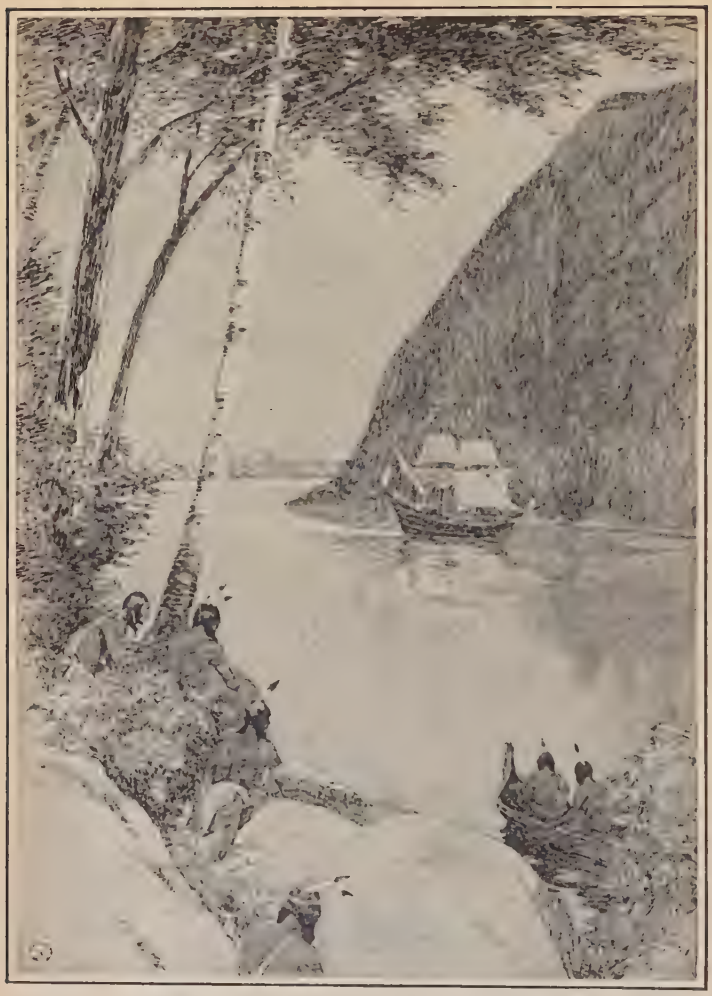
477. Contrast between the English and French Colonies. There were many differences between the English and French colonies. In the first place, all the settlers in New France were French in nationality and Catholic in religion. The English colonies, on the other hand, contained members of various religious faiths and emigrants from various European countries. While the English stock predominated, there were also Dutch settlers in New York, French Huguenots, Germans from the Rhine country, and Scotch-Irish. In addition there were several hundred thousand negro slaves.

Moreover, the English colonies, in spite of their difficulties with the mother country, were permitted far more freedom in managing their own affairs than the French. Each colony went its own way and concerned itself little with its neighbors, unless there was a dispute over a boundary line or the apportionment of money for defense against the Indians. But the same English law, trial by jury, liberty of speech and of the press, and other rights for which the English had fought since the days of the Great Charter were enjoyed by all the colonies alike.

478. The Colonies drawn into the Struggle between their Home Countries. The English colonies were at first so occupied with their own affairs that they were unaware of the long line of posts which the French had founded behind them from the St. Lawrence to the mouth of the Mississippi. As long as the Stuarts reigned there was little serious warfare between the French and English, for the English kings were accepting money from Louis XIV to defend themselves against the growing powers of Parliament. When, however, William of Orange became king, the situation was greatly changed. Holland had been the bitter enemy of Louis ever since his invasion of their country (§ 422). In addition, William was the most important defender of Protestantism, which Louis XIV was doing all he could to destroy. There now followed over a century of war-



Marquette and Joliet on the Mississippi



HENRY HUDSON'S LITTLE BOAT, THE *HALF-MOON*, IN WHICH HE SAILED UP THE RIVER THAT BEARS HIS NAME

fare between France and England, and with each new war in the Old World there was a corresponding outbreak in the New.

During the first of these conflicts between Louis XIV and William, known in American history as King William's War, the French sent bands of Indians to massacre the English; in this and subsequent wars they continued to use the Indians as allies whenever they could. Another struggle arose during the War of the Spanish Succession (§ 428), called by the colonists Queen Anne's War. By the Treaty of Utrecht (1713), which concluded the war, England was able to establish herself in regions to the north of her old colonies. France ceded to her Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the land bordering on Hudson Bay. The severest fighting between the French and English colonists occurred during the French and Indian War, which corresponded to the Seven Years' War in Europe (§ 446). It was in this colonial war that George Washington first distinguished himself.

479. England's Empire beyond the Seas. When the Seven Years' War came to an end with the Treaty of Paris, in 1763, France lost her colonial empire in North America. England came into possession of Canada and the region east of the Mississippi, France retaining only two islands on the coast of Newfoundland. To Spain, her ally, France ceded New Orleans and the territory west of the Mississippi (Map 16). Thus, fifty years after the Treaty of Utrecht, England had succeeded in driving the French from North America and supplanting them in India. She had laid the foundations of her vast empire beyond the seas, which secured for her in the nineteenth century the commercial leadership of the world.

IV. Revolt of the American Colonies from England

480. England's Colonies left comparatively Free. England had, however, no sooner added Canada to her possessions and driven the French from the broad region which lay between her dominions and the Mississippi than she lost a considerable part

of her American empire by the revolt of the irritated colonists, who refused to submit to her interference in their government and commerce.

The English settlers had been left alone, for the most part, by the home government and had enjoyed far greater freedom in the management of their affairs than had the French and Spanish colonists. Virginia established its own assembly in 1619, and Massachusetts became an almost independent commonwealth. Regular constitutions developed, which were later used as the basis for those of the several states when the colonies gained their independence. By the end of the Seven Years' War the colonists numbered over two millions. Their rapidly increasing wealth and strength, their free life in a new land, and the confidence they had gained in their successful conflict with the French,—all combined to render the interference of the British government intolerable to them.

481. Navigation Laws. England had, like Spain, France, and other colonizing countries, enacted a number of navigation and trade laws by which she tried to keep all the benefits of colonial trade and industry to herself. Early navigation laws were passed under Cromwell and Charles II which were specially directed against the enterprising Dutch traders (§ 463). They provided that all products grown or manufactured in Asia, Africa, or America should be imported into England or her colonies only in English ships. Thus, if a Dutch merchant vessel laden with cloves, cinnamon, teas, and silks from the Far East anchored in the harbor of New York, the inhabitants could not lawfully buy of the ship's master, no matter how much lower his prices were than those offered by English shippers. Furthermore, another act provided that no commodity of European production or manufacture should be imported into any of the colonies without being shipped by way of England and carried in ships built in England or her colonies. So if a colonial trader wished to buy French wines or Dutch watches, he would have to touch at an English port and pay a duty on the goods. Again, if a colonist desired to sell to a European merchant such prod-

ucts as the law permitted him to sell to foreigners, he had to export them in English ships and even send them by way of England.

482. Trade Laws. Certain articles in which the colonists were interested, such as sugar, tobacco, cotton, and indigo, could be sold only in England. Other things they were forbidden to export at all, or even to produce. For instance, though they could get the finest furs in abundance, they could not export any caps or hats made of fur to England or to any foreign country. The colonists had built up a lucrative lumber and provision trade with the French West Indies, from which they imported large quantities of rum, sugar, and molasses; but in order that this trade might be kept within British dominions, the importation of these commodities was forbidden.

483. The Colonists evade the English Restrictions. The colonists naturally evaded these laws as far as possible; they carried on a flourishing trade and built up industries in spite of the restrictions imposed. Tobacco, sugar, hemp, flax, and cotton were grown, and cloth was manufactured. Foundries supplied pig and bar iron, chains, anchors, and other hardware. It is clear that where so many people were interested in both manufacturing and commerce a loud protest was sure to be raised against any attempts of England to restrict the business of the colonists in favor of her own merchants.

But previous to 1763 the navigation and trade laws had been loosely enforced, and business men, regarding them as practically inoperative, ventured to neglect them and engage in illegal trade, which from the standpoint of the mother country constituted "smuggling." English statesmen had for a century, however, been too busy with the great struggle at home and with the wars with Louis XIV to stop this unlawful trade.

484. Change in English Colonial Policy after 1763. With the close of the successful Seven Years' War, and the conquest of Canada and the Ohio Valley, arrangements had to be made to protect the new territories and meet the expenses incident to the great enlargement of the British Empire. The home govern-

ment naturally argued that the prosperous colonists might make some contribution, in the form of taxes, to the expenses of the late war and the maintenance of a small body of troops for guarding the new possessions.

485. The Stamp Act. This led to the passage of the Stamp Act, which taxed the colonists by forcing them to pay the English government for the stamps which were required on leases, deeds, and other legal documents in order to make them binding. The colonists had always held that only their own colonial assemblies could legally levy taxes upon them. This Act of the British Parliament, therefore, aroused some of the colonial leaders, who declared that they had already borne the brunt of the recent war and that Parliament had no right to tax them, since they were not represented directly in that body. Representatives of the colonies met in New York in 1765 and denounced the Stamp Act as indicating "a manifest tendency to subvert the rights and liberties of the colonists."

The unpopular stamp tax was repealed, in spite of the opposition of King George III, who, with some of the members of Parliament, thought that the colonists should be punished rather than conciliated. Others were very friendly to them, and a proposal was made to permit the colonists to tax themselves, but Benjamin Franklin, then in England, sadly admitted that they would not consent to do so. Parliament then decided to raise a certain amount by duties on glass, paper, and tea; and a board was established to secure a stricter enforcement of the old and hitherto largely neglected navigation laws and other restrictions. The protests of the colonists led Parliament, however, to remove all the duties except that on tea, which was retained owing to the active efforts of the East India Company, whose interests were at stake.

486. The Boston Tea Party (1773); Attitude of Parliament toward the Colonists. The effort to make the Americans pay a very moderate duty on tea, and to force upon the Boston markets the East India Company's tea at a very low price, produced trouble in 1773. For the colonies were not to be thus

beguiled into an acknowledgment of the right of Parliament to lay even a three-penny tax on them. A band of young men was got together in Boston who boarded a tea ship in the harbor and threw the cargo into the water. This so-called Boston Tea Party served to increase the growing discord between the colonies and the mother country.

A considerable body in Parliament were opposed to coercing the colonists. Burke, perhaps the most able member of the House of Commons, urged the ministry to leave the Americans to tax themselves, but George III, and the Tory party in Parliament, could not forgive the colonists for their opposition. They believed that the trouble was largely confined to New England and could easily be overcome. In 1774, acts were passed prohibiting the landing and shipping of goods at Boston; and the colony of Massachusetts was deprived of its former right to choose its judges and the members of the upper house of its legislature, who were thereafter to be selected by the king.

487. The Continental Congresses. These measures, instead of bringing Massachusetts to terms, so roused the fears of the rest of the colonists that a congress of representatives from all the colonies was held at Philadelphia in 1774 to see what could be done. This congress decided that all trade with Great Britain should cease until the grievances of the colonies had been redressed. The following year the Americans withstood the British troops at Lexington and Concord, and later made a brave stand against them in the battle of Bunker Hill. The second Congress decided to prepare for war and raised an army which was put under the command of George Washington, a Virginia planter who had gained some distinction in the late French and Indian War.

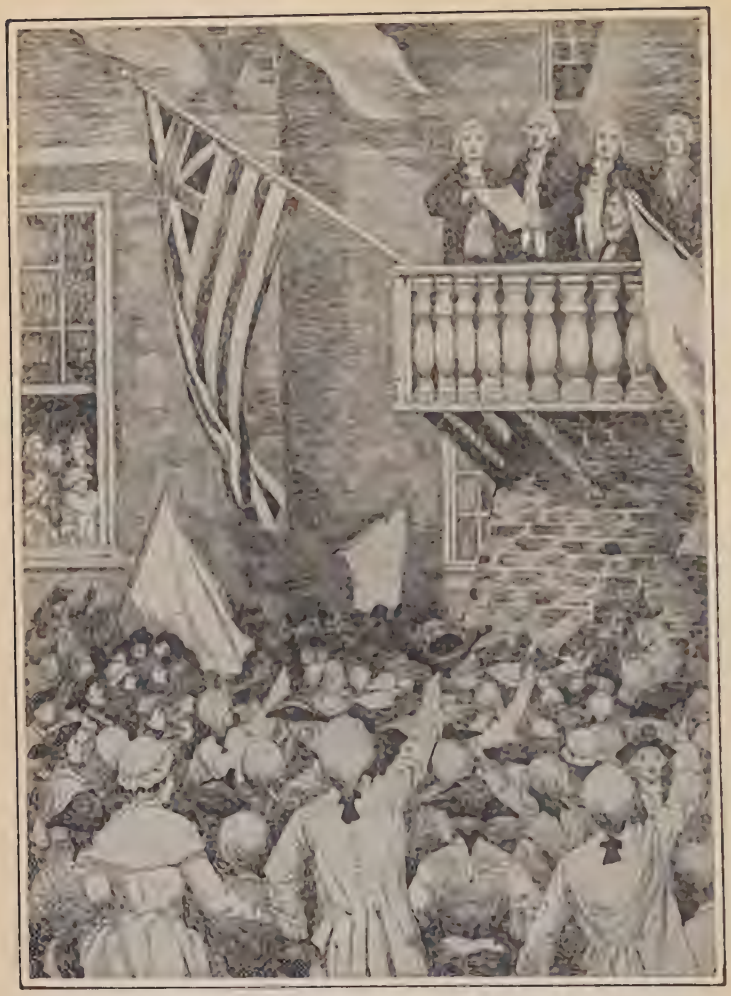
488. Declaration of Independence (July 4, 1776). Up to this time few people had openly advocated the separation of the colonies from the mother country; but the proposed compromises came to nothing, and in July, 1776, Congress declared that "these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states."

The party which favored an attempt to gain independence was a minority of the population. The so-called "Tories," who opposed separation from England, were perhaps as numerous as those who advocated the American Revolution; and the other third of the colonists appears to have been indifferent.

489. The United States receives Aid from France. The Declaration of Independence naturally excited great interest in France. The outcome of the Seven Years' War had been most humiliating for that country, and any trouble which came to her old enemy England could not but be a source of satisfaction to the French. The United States, therefore, regarded France as their natural ally and immediately sent Benjamin Franklin to Versailles in the hope of obtaining the aid of the new French king, Louis XVI (§ 535). The king's ministers were uncertain whether the colonies could long maintain their resistance against the overwhelming strength of the mother country. It was only after the Americans had defeated Burgoyne at Saratoga that France, in 1778, concluded a treaty with the United States in which the independence of the new American republic was recognized. This was equivalent to declaring war upon England. The French government then aided the colonies with loans, and enthusiasm for the Americans became so great in France that a number of the younger nobles, the most conspicuous of whom was the Marquis de Lafayette, crossed the Atlantic to fight as volunteers in the American army.

490. Success of the Revolution. There was so much difference of opinion in England in regard to the expediency of the war, and so much sympathy in Parliament for the colonists, that the military operations were not carried on with much vigor. Nevertheless, the Americans found it no easy task to win the war. In spite of the skill and heroic self-sacrifice of Washington, and the bravery of the troops, they lost more battles than they gained. The aid of the French fleet was of great importance in bringing the war to a favorable close, by forcing the English general Cornwallis to capitulate at Yorktown (1781). The chief result of the war was the recognition

Retreat of the British from Concord



READING OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

by England of the independence of the United States, whose territory was to extend to the Mississippi River. To the west of the Mississippi the vast territory of Louisiana still remained in the hands of Spain, to whom England now gave back Florida, which she had held since 1763.

Spain and Portugal were able to hold their American possessions a generation longer than the English, but in the end practically all the Western Hemisphere, with the exception of Canada, became completely independent; and Canada now enjoys the utmost freedom in managing its own affairs. Cuba, one of the very last vestiges of Spanish dominion in the West, gained its independence with the aid of the United States in 1898.

491. Great Extension of England's Colonial Possessions. England had lost her American colonies as a result of the only important and successful revolt that had ever taken place in her great empire. This revolution led to the creation of a sister state speaking her own language and destined to occupy the central part of the North American continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific. She still retained Canada, however, and in the nineteenth century added a new continent in the Southern Hemisphere, Australia, to her vast colonial empire. In India she had no further rivals among European nations and gradually extended her influence over the whole region south of the Himalayas (Chapter XXXV).

QUESTIONS

I. Name some of the things you use every day that come from foreign countries. How did the early discoveries contribute to the development of world trade? How do the colonial possessions of European countries compare in size with the countries themselves? Describe the way in which Portugal succeeded to the trade of the Italian cities. How did Spain mismanage her colonies? How did the Portuguese lose their commercial power? How did the Dutch supplant Portugal in the control of Eastern trade? Describe the rivalry of the Dutch and English. What colonies do the Dutch still have in the East? When did the French become interested in India?

II. Describe India. Tell something of her peoples. What is the caste system? How did England and France become rivals in India? How did the struggle terminate?

III. Describe the settlements of the French in North America. How did the home government hinder the development of the French colonies in America? Where did the English settle in America? What were the different nationalities which migrated to the Atlantic coast of North America? How were the American colonies drawn into the European wars? What were the results of the War of the Spanish Succession and of the Seven Years' War in North America?

IV. Review the struggle of the English and French for possessions in America. What was the condition of the English settlers in America at the close of the Seven Years' War? Describe England's navigation and trade laws. How did the colonists evade these restrictions? Why did England introduce a stricter policy after 1763? Why were the taxes so unpopular in the colonies? What was the attitude of Parliament toward the colonies? Review the events which led to the separation of the colonies from England. What was the importance of the aid given by France?

CHAPTER XXVI

GENERAL CONDITIONS IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

I. Life of the People in Country and Town

492. Survivals of the Manorial System in France. If a peasant who had lived on a manor in the time of the Crusades had been able to return to earth and travel about Europe at the opening of the eighteenth century, he would have found much to remind him of the conditions under which, six centuries earlier, he had extracted a scanty living from the soil. Although the gradual disappearance of serfdom in western Europe seems to have begun as early as the twelfth century, it proceeded at very different rates in different countries (§ 268). In France the old type of serf had largely disappeared by the fourteenth century, and serfdom was almost completely extinct in England a hundred years later.

In France there were, however, still many annoying traces of the old system. The peasant was, it is true, no longer bound to a particular manor; he could buy or sell his land at will, could marry without consulting the lord, and could go and come as he pleased. But the lord might still require all those on his manor to grind their grain at his mill, bake their bread in his oven, and press their grapes in his wine press. The peasant might have to pay a toll to cross a bridge or ferry which was under the lord's control, or give a certain sum for driving his flock past the lord's mansion. He might also have to turn over to his lord a certain portion of his crops.

493. Condition of the Serfs in a Large Part of Europe. In Prussia, Russia, Austria, Hungary, Italy, and Spain the medieval system still prevailed (§§ 265 ff.); the peasant lived and died upon the same manor, and worked for his lord in the same

way that his ancestors had worked a thousand years before. Everywhere the same crude farm implements were still used and were made in the neighboring village. The wooden plows were much like those used by the Roman coloni (§ 170); wheat was cut with a sickle, grass with an unwieldy scythe, and the rickety cart wheels did not have iron tires but only wooden rims.

494. Wretched Houses of the Peasants. The houses of the country people differed greatly from Sicily to Pomerania, and from Ireland to Poland; but in general they were small, with little light or ventilation, and often they were nothing but wretched hovels with dirt floors and leaky thatch roofs. The pigs and the cows were frequently as well housed as the people, with whom they associated upon very familiar terms, since the barn and the house were commonly in the same building. The drinking-water was bad, and there was no attempt to secure proper drainage. Fortunately everyone was out of doors a great deal of the time, for the women as well as the men usually worked in the fields, cultivating the soil and helping to gather in the crops.

Country life in the eighteenth century was thus, for the most part, very unattractive, especially as the peasant had no newspapers to tell him of the world outside his manor, nor could he have read them if he had had them. Even in England, it is conjectured, not one farmer in five thousand could read at all.

495. Towns still Medieval in the Eighteenth Century. In the towns also there was much to remind one of the Middle Ages (§§ 269 ff.). The narrow, crooked streets, darkened by the overhanging buildings and scarcely lighted at all by night, the rough cobblestones, the disgusting odors even in the best quarters,—all offered a marked contrast to the European cities of today, which have grown tremendously in the last hundred years in size, beauty, and comfort.

496. London. In 1760 London had half a million inhabitants, or about a tenth of its present population. There were, of course, no street cars or omnibuses, to say nothing of the thousands of automobiles which now wind their way in and out through

London in the Eighteenth Century

London was almost destroyed by a great fire in 1666. The old city had been a picturesque mass of timbered houses; the new one was built of brick and stone. In the center rose the new St. Paul's Cathedral, whose dome, three hundred and seventy feet high, is still higher than any other building in the city. Its architect, Sir Christopher Wren, built also most of the other churches whose spires are visible here. The column with a gallery around it is "The Monument," erected to commemorate the great fire. At the lower right-hand side is the Tower. Note the houses on London Bridge. The two towers farthest up the river are those of Westminster Abbey

the press of traffic. A few hundred public coaches and sedan chairs served to carry those who had no private conveyances and could not, or would not, walk. The ill-lighted streets were guarded at night by watchmen who went about with lanterns, but who afforded so little protection against the roughs and robbers that gentlemen were compelled to carry arms when passing through the streets after nightfall.

497. Paris. Paris was somewhat larger than London and had outgrown its medieval walls. The police were more efficient there, and the highway robberies which disgraced London and its suburbs were almost unknown. The great park, the "Elysian Fields," and many of the boulevards which now form so distinguished a feature of Paris were already laid out; but in general the streets were still narrow, and there were none of the fine, broad avenues which now radiate from many centers. There were few sewers to carry off the water which, when it rained, flowed through the middle of the streets. The filth and the bad smells of former times still remained, and the people had to rely upon easily polluted wells or the dirty River Seine for their water supply.

498. German Towns. In Germany very few of the towns had spread beyond their medieval walls. They had, for the most part, lost their former prosperity, which was still recalled by the fine old houses of the merchants and of the once flourishing guilds. Berlin had a population of only about two hundred thousand. Vienna, the finest city in Austria, was slightly larger. This city then employed from thirty to a hundred street-cleaners, and boasted that the street lamps were lighted every night.

499. Italian Cities. Even the famous cities of Italy,—Milan, Genoa, Florence, Rome (§§ 302 ff.),—notwithstanding their beautiful palaces and public buildings, were, with the exception of water-bound Venice, crowded into the limited compass of the town wall, and their streets were narrow and crooked.

500. Trade and Industry on a Small Scale. Another contrast between the towns of the eighteenth century and those of today lay in the absence of the great wholesale warehouses, the vast

INTERIOR OF A HOUSE IN THE OLD RÉGIME

This is a room in the house of a well-to-do Norman sailor, as shown in the municipal museum of Honfleur. The flax wheel, it will be noticed, was kept busy beside the open fire

A Merchant in his Shop in the Old Régime

Most of the shops of the eighteenth century were merely rooms of private houses fitted up for business. The merchant has hung his goods from the ceiling and arranged them on shelves over the doorway

factories with their tall chimneys, and the attractive department stores which may now be found in every city from Dublin to Budapest. There were as yet no steamships, railroads, or even factories supplied with machinery; so business was conducted upon a small scale, except at the great ports like London, Antwerp, or Amsterdam, where goods coming from or going to the colonies in sailing vessels were brought together in great warehouses.

501. Survival of Medieval Guilds. The medieval guilds still controlled the making and selling of goods (§ 272). A great part of the manufacturing still took place in little shops where the articles were offered for sale. Generally all those who owned the several shops carrying on a particular trade, such as tailoring, shoemaking, baking, tanning, bookbinding, hair-cutting, or the making of candles, knives, hats, artificial flowers, swords, or wigs, were organized into a guild, the main object of which was to prevent all other citizens from making or selling the articles in which the members of the guild dealt. The guilds were confined, however, to the old established industries, and disappeared when machinery was introduced.

II. The Privileged Classes: Nobility and Clergy

502. Privileges of the Nobility. Not only had the medieval manor and the medieval guilds lasted down into the eighteenth century, but the successors of the feudal lords continued to exist as a showy and powerful class. They enjoyed various privileges and distinctions denied to the ordinary citizen, although they were, of course, shorn of the great power that the more important dukes and counts had formerly enjoyed. In the Middle Ages they had ruled over vast tracts, had been able to summon their vassals to assist them in their constant wars with their neighbors, and had dared defy even the authority of the king himself (§§ 222 ff.).

503. Feudal Nobles brought under Royal Control. The English, French, and Spanish kings had gradually subjugated the

turbulent barons and brought the great fiefs directly under royal control. The monarchs had met with such success that in the eighteenth century the nobles no longer held aloof but eagerly

A Noble Family of the Old Régime

Extravagance in dress, of which the men were as guilty as the women, was due largely to the influence of court life

sought the king's court, as we have seen. Those whose predecessors had once really been sovereigns within their own domains had deserted their war horses and laid aside their long swords; in their velvet coats and high-heeled shoes they were contented with the privilege of helping the king to dress in the

morning and attending him at dinner. The battlemented castle, once the stronghold of independent chieftains, was transformed into a pleasant country residence where, if the king honored the owner with a visit, the host was no longer tempted, as his ancestors had been, to shower arrows upon the royal intruder.

By their prolonged absence from their estates the nobles in France lost the confidence of their tenants, while their stewards roused the hatred of the peasants by strictly collecting all the ancient manorial dues in order that the lord might enjoy the gayeties at court.

504. The English Peerage. In England the feudal castles had disappeared earlier than in France, and the English law did not grant to anyone, however long and distinguished his lineage, special rights or exemptions not enjoyed by every freeman. Nevertheless, there was a distinct noble class in England. The monarch had been accustomed to summon his earls and some of his barons to take council with him, and in this way the *peerage* developed; this included those whose title permitted them to sit in the House of Lords and to transmit this honorable privilege to their eldest sons. But the peers paid the same taxes as every other subject and were punished in the same manner if they were convicted of an offense. Moreover, only the *eldest* living son of a noble father inherited his rank, while on the Continent *all* the children became nobles. In this way the number of the English nobility was greatly restricted.

505. The German Nobles. In Germany, however, the nobles continued to occupy very much the same position that their ancestors had held in the Middle Ages. There had been no king to do for Germany what the French kings had done for France: no mighty man had risen strong enough to batter down castle walls and bend all barons, great and small, to his will. The result was that there were in Germany in the eighteenth century hundreds of nobles dwelling in strong old castles and ruling domains which were sometimes no larger than a big American farm. They levied taxes, held courts, coined money, and maintained standing armies of perhaps only a handful of soldiers.

506. The King the Chief Noble. In all the countries of Europe the chief noble was, of course, the monarch himself, to whose favor almost all the lesser nobles owed their titles and rank. On the whole, the king merited the respect paid him. He had put a stop to the private warfare and feudal brigandage which had disgraced the Middle Ages. He it was who had destroyed the power of innumerable lesser despots and created something like a nation.

507. The Clergy a Privileged Class. In addition to the nobles, the clergy, especially in Catholic countries, formed a privileged class which was even more powerful and better organized than the nobility. They still enjoyed many rights and immunities which set them off from the people at large. We have seen how the government during the Middle Ages depended on the clergy to write out its documents and decrees—since they alone were educated—and how the higher clergy came to play a prominent part in the affairs of state and to act as counselors to the king. Moreover, they controlled the vast wealth of the Church, which had gradually accumulated through gifts of money and lands. The archbishops, bishops, and abbots were in the eighteenth century fond of living at the king's court, supported in luxury by the income from their great estates, and had in many cases the rights of feudal lords. On the other hand, many of the poor parish priests could hardly subsist on their meager and uncertain incomes. The Church, however, did not rely for its support entirely upon the revenue from its extensive domains, but imposed a regular tax on everyone—the *tithe*, which all were forced to pay whether they wished to or not.

508. Powers of the Church in the Eighteenth Century. In spite of the changes which had overtaken it, the Church remained in the eighteenth century a powerful and impressive institution. It retained its gorgeous ceremonial, its stately officials, its enormous possessions, and its control over the minds of men. By performing many useful services it seemed as indispensable to the average citizen as it had before the development of great national states. It registered his birth, took care

of his education, sanctified his marriage, gave him relief in time of sickness or distress, and provided eternal salvation for his soul. In return, however, it claimed the right to collect its income and to demand loyalty to its teachings. It fined and imprisoned those who dared to oppose its dogmas, and it could by *excommunication* punish those who defied its authority.

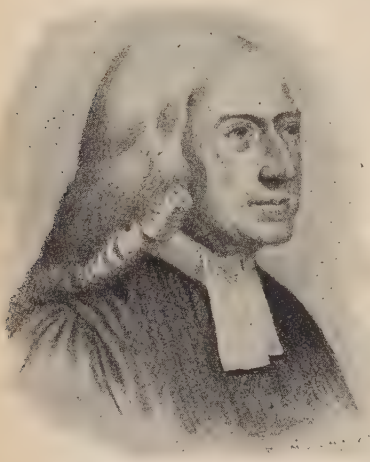
509. Intolerance of Both Catholics and Protestants. Both the Protestant and Catholic churches were intolerant. In this they were usually supported by the government, which was ready to punish anyone who refused to conform to the religion adopted by the State or who ventured to speak or write against its doctrines.

510. Censorship of the Press. Books and pamphlets were carefully examined by a censor in order to see whether they in any way attempted to undermine the authority of the Church or of the king. As late as 1757 the king of France issued a declaration establishing the death penalty for those who wrote, printed, or distributed any work which appeared to be an attack on religion. A considerable number of the books issued in France in the eighteenth century which criticized the government or the Church were condemned by either the clergy or the king's courts and were suppressed or burned by the common hangman. Not infrequently the authors, if they could be discovered, were imprisoned.

Nevertheless, books attacking the old ideas and suggesting reforms in Church and State constantly appeared and were freely circulated. The writers took care not to place their names or those of the publishers upon the title-pages, and many such books were printed at Geneva or in Holland, where great freedom prevailed. In Spain the censorship of the press and the Inquisition both served to discourage change until the latter half of the eighteenth century.

511. The English Established Church and the Protestant Sects. It will be remembered that Henry VIII had thrown off his allegiance to the Pope and declared himself the head of the English Church. Under Queen Elizabeth a national Church

had been established by Parliament. Those who loyally adhered to the Roman Catholic faith fared badly, although happily there were no such general massacres as overwhelmed the Protestants in France. There were many Protestants who did not approve of the Anglican Church as established by law. During the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries these Dissenters developed gradually into several sects, with different views. In addition to those of which we have already spoken (§ 398), there was the Society of Friends, or Quakers. They owed their origin to George Fox, who began his preaching in 1647. The Friends were distinguished by their simplicity of life and dress, and by their plain meeting-houses with scarcely a trace of the old forms of religious worship. The Quakers were the first religious sect to denounce war ever and always, and they should have the credit of beginning a movement against war which had gained much headway before the outbreak in 1914.



John Wesley

The last of the great Protestant sects to appear was that of the Methodists. Their founder, John Wesley (d. 1791), when at Oxford, established a religious society among his fellow students. Their piety and the regularity of their habits gained for them the nickname of "Methodists."

512. Legal Intolerance in England. The Toleration Act, which was passed in 1689, permitted the Dissenters to hold meetings; but "Papists and such as deny the Trinity" (namely, Unitarians) were explicitly excluded. The Dissenters as well

as Catholics were not permitted to hold government offices and could not obtain degrees at the universities. Only the members of the Anglican Church could secure a Church appointment. Roman Catholics were forbidden to enter England and legally had no rights whatever within the realm.

513. Freedom of Speech and of the Press in England. Nevertheless, in spite of the ancient intolerant laws and the special privileges of the Anglican Church, men were very free in the eighteenth century in England to believe and to say what they wished. One desiring to publish a book or pamphlet did not have to obtain the permission of the government, as was required in France. The result was that there was a vast amount of discussion of religious, scientific, and political matters, beyond anything that went on in any other European country. The books of the English reformers had a great influence upon the French, as will become apparent in the following section.

III. Modern Science introduces the Idea of Progress

514. Idea of the "Good Old Times." Before the eighteenth century, men in general showed a great respect and veneration for the past. They believed that former times had been better than the present; for the evils of the past were little known, while the existing ones were only too apparent. They therefore always aspired to be as brave and noble, to write as good books, or to paint as beautiful pictures as the great men of old. That they might hope to excel their predecessors did not occur to them. Their ideals centered in the past, and improvement seemed to them to consist in reviving the "good old days."

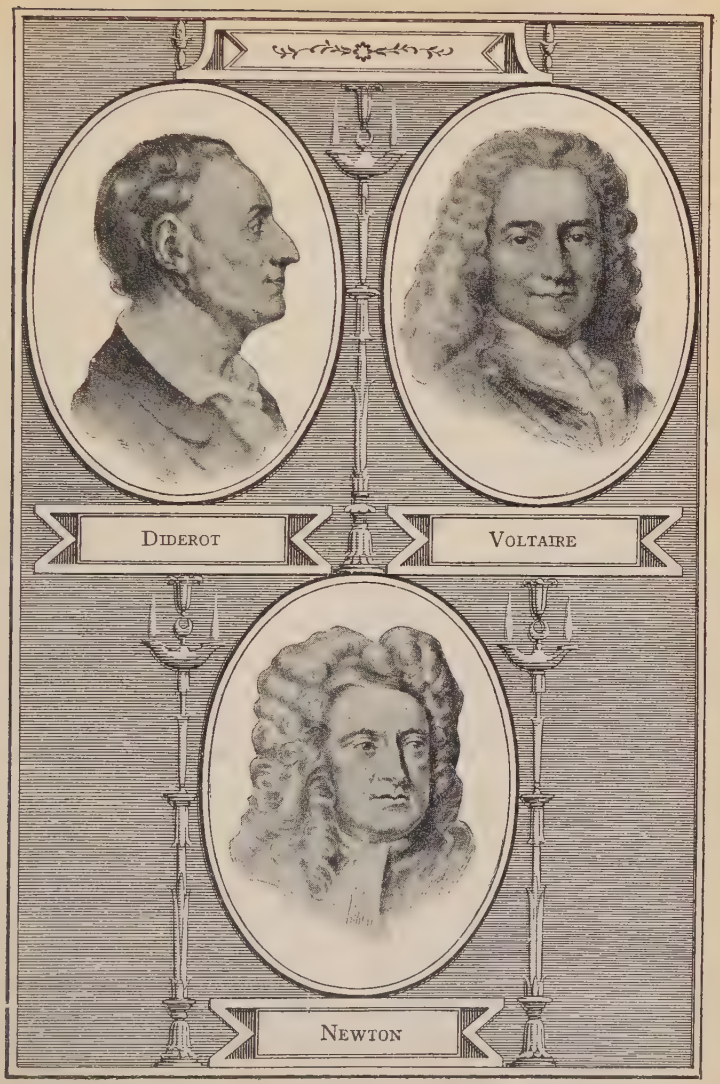
515. New Idea of Progress. Thoughtful people, however, began to be aware of the deficiencies and mistakes of the past and to dream of betterment and progress beyond the happiest times of which they had any record. They came to feel that the ignorance and prejudices of their forefathers, and the bad laws and institutions which their ancestors had handed down to them,

were the chief obstacles to reform. If only they could be free of these burdens, life might be made much happier.

516. Influence of Scientific Discoveries. It was mainly to the patient men of science that the Western world owed its hope of future improvement. They have gradually robbed the past of its binding authority and by their discoveries pointed the way to indefinite advance. We can hardly realize how great a change has come over man's outlook on the world in recent times, for today we *expect* constant new discoveries and improvements and accept without astonishment such marvelous inventions as the telephone, the wireless telegraph, the radio, and the aëroplane.

517. Modern Experimental Science. In the Middle Ages learned men had been but little interested in the world about them and had devoted their attention to philosophy and theology. They were content to get their knowledge of nature from reading the works of the ancients—mainly Aristotle. The new scientists, however, were not satisfied with the mere observation of what they saw about them, or with the accounts that ancient writers had given; they began to perform *experiments*—that is, they placed materials in new combinations and carefully observed what took place. They established laboratories, especially equipped, where they could use apparatus which was designed to help them in their studies. Microscopes, telescopes, barometers, thermometers, clocks, and balances now assisted them in making accurate measurements which were impossible for the Greeks and Romans, who had none of these instruments to aid them. This new method of study led to the most astonishing discoveries, which have revolutionized the world in which we live. Our modern machinery, locomotives, steamships, telephones, cameras, and phonographs are but a few of the marvelous results of scientific experiment which had its beginnings in the eighteenth century.

518. Opposition to Scientific Discoveries. Those who accepted the old views of the world and religion were quite justified in suspecting that the new discoveries would make them trouble.



Leaders of the Revolution in Thought

For scientific investigation taught men to distrust the past, which furnished so many instances of ignorance and superstition. The theologians had maintained that man was utterly vile, and incapable of good thoughts and deeds except through divine grace. The newer thinkers, however, urged him, on the contrary, to use his own reason freely, and believed that he might indefinitely better his own condition and that of his fellows could he only succeed in ridding himself of the accumulation of ancient error and tradition.

519. Voltaire and his Influence (1694–1778). In the year 1726 there landed in England a young and gifted Frenchman who was to become the great prophet of this view. Voltaire, who was then thirty-two years of age, had already deserted the older religious beliefs and was ready to follow enthusiastically the more progressive English thinkers, who discussed matters with an openness that filled him with astonishment. He greatly admired the teachings of Newton and regarded his discovery of universal gravitation as greater than any of the achievements of Alexander or Cæsar. He had no use for warriors; he says, "It is to him who *understands* the universe, not to those who *disfigure* it, that we owe our reverence." Voltaire was also deeply impressed by the Quakers—their simple life and their hatred of war. He was pleased by the English liberty of speech and writing, and he respected the general esteem for the business class. His little volume *Letters on the English*, in which he records the impressions which England made on him when he visited it, was condemned to be publicly burned by the high court of justice at Paris as scandalous and lacking in the respect then considered due to kings and governments.

Voltaire remained, however, during the rest of his long life the chief advocate in Europe of reliance upon reason and of confidence in progress. The vast range of his writings enabled him to bring his views before all sorts and conditions of men. He wrote histories, plays, philosophic treatises, romances, and innumerable letters to his many admirers. The name of Voltaire has become associated with his relentless attack upon

the Roman Catholic Church, which appeared to him opposed to the exercise of reason and hostile to reform. It was because he believed that the Church stood in the way of progress that he seemed incapable of realizing all that it had done for mankind during the bygone ages. He fought, however, against wrong and oppression and did much to prepare the way for great and permanent reforms.

520. Diderot's *Encyclopedia.* Voltaire had many admirers and powerful allies. Among these none were more important than Denis Diderot and the scholars whom Diderot induced to cooperate with him in preparing articles for a new *Encyclopedia*, which was designed to spread among a wide range of intelligent readers a knowledge of scientific advance and to kindle enthusiasm for reform and progress. Diderot and his fellow editors endeavored to rouse as little opposition as possible. They respected current prejudices and gave space to ideas and opinions with which they were not always personally in sympathy.

The *Encyclopedia* attacked temperately, but effectively, religious intolerance, the bad taxes, the slave trade, and the atrocities of the criminal law; it encouraged men to turn their minds to natural science, with all its possibilities. The article "Legislator," written by Diderot, might have been written today: "All the men of all lands have become necessary to one another for the exchange of the fruits of industry and the products of the soil. Commerce is a new bond among men. In these days every nation has an interest in the preservation by every other nation of its wealth, its industry, its banks, its luxury, its agriculture."

In spite of its wisdom and moderation, however, it aroused the opposition of the theologians, and after the first two volumes appeared, in 1752, the king's ministers, to please the officials of the Church, condemned them, as containing principles hostile to royal authority and religion, although they did not succeed in preventing the completion and final publication of the work.

521. Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712–1778). Next to Voltaire the writer who did most to cultivate discontent with existing conditions was Jean Jacques Rousseau. Rousseau believed in the

natural equality of mankind and the right of every man to have a voice in the government. In his celebrated little treatise *The Social Contract* he declares that it is *the will of the people* that renders government legitimate. The real sovereign is the people. Although they may appoint a single person, such as a king, to manage the government for them, they should make the laws, since it is they who must obey them. We shall find that the first French constitution accepted Rousseau's doctrine and defined law as "the expression of the general will"—not the will of a king reigning by the grace of God. Rousseau also urged men to return to nature and to a life of simplicity; for he held that the development of the arts and sciences had demoralized mankind, since they had produced luxury, insincerity, and arrogance.

CATHERINE II

522. The Benevolent Despots. Some of the rulers of the time, especially Frederick the Great of Prussia, Catherine the Great of Russia, and Maria Theresa's son, Emperor Joseph II, read the books of the French reformers and corresponded with them. These monarchs are known as the "benevolent despots"; for while they were careful to keep the government in their own hands, they introduced various reforms which they claimed would be advantageous to their subjects.

Frederick read French books and wrote in French; he invited Voltaire to spend some time at his palace near Berlin and kept up a correspondence with him later. Catherine too tried hard to govern her realms well, and explained her reforms in letters to Voltaire. She also helped and encouraged Diderot. Al-

though she talked of abolishing serfdom, she really increased the number of serfs and made their lot worse by forbidding them to complain of their masters. She confiscated the property of churches and monasteries, using part of the revenue to support the clergy and part for schools and hospitals.

Joseph II, who succeeded Maria Theresa in 1780 as ruler of the Austrian realms, was the only one of the benevolent despots who undertook sweeping reforms. He tried to make the scattered and unrelated possessions of the Hapsburgs into a consolidated, well-organized, modern state; he freed the serfs and deprived the nobles of their privileges. He seized the Church property and appointed the bishops himself.

In spite of his good intentions Joseph II met opposition on all hands. The clergy regarded him as an oppressor, and the nobility were irritated at the changes which affected their position. After his death, in 1790, few of his reforms left any permanent results.

QUESTIONS

I. What survivals of the manorial system were to be found in Europe in the eighteenth century? What was the condition of the serfs? How were trade and industry carried on? Describe the medieval towns. Compare town life in the eighteenth century in London and Paris with what you know of it today.

II. How did the European nobility originate? How did their mode of living in the eighteenth century differ from what it had been in the Middle Ages? Compare the French nobility with the English peerage. What does Europe owe to the development of kingship? How did the clergy come to be a privileged class? What was the position of the Church in Catholic countries? What was the censorship of the press? Does it exist today? What Protestant sects had grown up in England?

III. Contrast the medieval attitude toward the past with that of thoughtful people in the eighteenth century. To what was the change of attitude largely due? What is meant by experimental science? What new instruments were used which assisted in making discoveries? Tell what you know of Voltaire. What did the *Encyclopedia* attempt to do? Why was it suppressed? Why did Rousseau think that civilization was a bad thing? What was the policy of the "benevolent despots"?

BOOK V. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND NAPOLEON

CHAPTER XXVII

THE EVE OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

I. The Old Régime in France

523. The French Revolution not the Reign of Terror. It was France that first carried out the great reforms that did away with many of the old institutions and much of the confusion that had come down from the Middle Ages. In 1789 the king of France asked his people to submit their grievances to him and to send representatives to Versailles to confer with him upon the ways in which the government might be improved so as to increase the general happiness and the prosperity of the kingdom. The French National Assembly swept away the old institutions and accomplished more in a few months than the reforming kings had done in a century.

However, when one meets the words "French Revolution," he is pretty sure to call up before his mind's eye the guillotine and its hundreds of victims, and the Paris mob shouting the hymn of the *Marseillaise* as they paraded the streets with the heads of unfortunate "aristocrats" on their pikes. Everyone has heard of this terrible episode in French history even if he knows nothing of the permanent good which was accomplished at the time. Indeed, it has made so deep an impression that the Reign of Terror is often mistaken for the real Revolution. It was, however, only a sequel to it, an unhappy accident, which will be described in good time. Let us see first how the permanent re-

forms of the French Revolution were wrought out and how France won the proud distinction of being the first nation to do away with the absurd and vexatious institutions which continued to weigh upon Europe in the eighteenth century.

524. The "Old Régime." We have already examined the institutions which were common to most of the European countries,—despotic kings, arbitrary imprisonment, unfair taxation, censorship of the press, serfdom, feudal dues, friction between Church and State,—all of which the reformers had been busy denouncing as contrary to reason and humanity, and some of which the benevolent despots had, in a half-hearted way, attempted to remedy. The various relics of bygone times and of outlived conditions which the Revolution abolished forever are commonly called in France the "old régime."[1] We shall now try to see how almost everyone, from the king to the peasant, came to realize that the "old régime" was bad and consequently resolved to do away with it and substitute a more rational plan of government for the long-standing disorder.

525. France not a Unified State. Of the evils which the Revolution abolished, none was more important than the confusion in France due to the fact that it was not in the eighteenth century a well-organized, unified state whose citizens all enjoyed the same rights and privileges. A long line of kings had patched it together, adding bit by bit as they could. By conquest and bargain, by marrying heiresses, and through the dying out of the feudal families the small domains about Paris belonging to the early French kings had been gradually increased by their descendants. We have seen how Louis XIV gained Alsace and Strasbourg. Louis XV added Lorraine in 1766. When Louis XVI came to the throne in 1774 he found himself ruler of practically the whole territory which makes up France today. But these different parts had different institutions.

Some of the districts which the kings of France brought under their sway were previously considerable states in themselves, each with its own laws, customs, and system of government.

[1] From the French *ancien régime*, the old or former system.

When these provinces had come, at different times, into the possession of the king of France, he had not changed their laws so as to make them correspond with those of his other domains; he was satisfied if a new province paid its due share of the taxes and treated his officials with respect.

While in a considerable portion of southern France the Roman law still prevailed, in the central parts and in the west and north there were no less than two hundred and eighty-five different local codes of law in force; so that one who moved from his own to a neighboring town might find a wholly unfamiliar legal system.

THE SALT TAX

526. The Burden of Taxes. Among the serious grievances of the peasants were the high taxes which they had to pay, amounting sometimes to eighty per cent of their whole income. These included the land tax (*taille*), the poll tax (tax per head), and labor in maintaining the highways. In addition to these there were the tithes to be paid to the Church and the dues collected by the feudal lords. The government, moreover, obtained a large revenue by various taxes on food and wine, which the peasant paid indirectly in the increased price of the articles.

One of the heaviest taxes was that on salt. This varied so greatly in different parts of France that the government had to go to great expense to guard the boundary lines between the various districts, for there was every inducement to smugglers to carry salt from those parts of the country where it was

cheap into the regions where it was sold for a high price on account of the tax. The figures on the map on the opposite page show the differing prices for a given amount of salt.

527. The Privileged Classes: the Clergy. Besides these unfortunate local differences, there were class differences which caused great discontent. All Frenchmen did not enjoy the same rights as citizens. Two small but very important classes, the nobility and the clergy, were treated differently by the state from the rest of the people. They did not have to pay one of the heaviest of the taxes, the notorious *taille*, or land tax; and escaped other burdens which the rest of the citizens bore.

We have seen how great and powerful the medieval Church still was (§§ 507 ff.). In France, as in other Catholic countries of Europe, it took charge of education and of the relief of the sick and the poor. It was very wealthy and is supposed to have owned one fifth of all the land in France. The clergy claimed that their property, being dedicated to God, was not subject to taxation as other land was. They consented, however, to help the king from time to time by a "free gift," as they called it. The Church still continued to collect the tithes from the people; its income and its vast possessions made it very independent.

A great part of the enormous income of the Church went to the higher clergy—the bishops, archbishops, and abbots. Since these were appointed by the king, often from among his courtiers, they tended to neglect their duties as officers of the Church and to become little more than "great lords with a hundred thousand francs income." But while they were spending their time at Versailles the real work was performed—and well performed—by the lower clergy, who often received scarcely enough to keep soul and body together. This explains why, when the Revolution began, the parish priests sided with the people instead of with their ecclesiastical superiors.

528. The Privileges of the Nobility. The privileges of the nobles, like those of the clergy, had originated in the medieval conditions described in an earlier chapter. While serfdom had largely disappeared in France long before the eighteenth cen-

tury, and the peasants were generally free men who owned or rented their land, the lords still enjoyed, as we have seen, the right to collect a variety of time-honored dues from the inhabitants living within the limits of the former manors.

The nobles, too, had the exclusive privilege of hunting, which was deemed an aristocratic pastime. The game which they preserved for their amusement often did great damage to the crops of the peasants, who were forbidden to interfere with hares and deer. Many of the manors had great pigeon houses, built in the form of a tower, in which there were one or two thousand nests. No wonder the peasants detested these, for they were not permitted to protect themselves against the innumerable pigeons and their progeny, which spread over the fields devouring newly sown seed.

The higher offices in the army were reserved for the nobles, as well as the easiest and most lucrative places in the Church and in the king's palace.

529. The Third Estate. Everybody who did not belong to either the clergy or the nobility was regarded as being of the *Third Estate.* The Third Estate was therefore really the nation at large living in the towns and in the country and numbering in 1789 about twenty-five million souls. The privileged classes can scarcely have counted altogether more than two hundred or two hundred and fifty thousand individuals. A great part of the Third Estate lived in the country and tilled the soil. Most historians have been inclined to make out the condition of the peasants as very wretched. They were certainly oppressed by an abominable system of taxation and were irritated by the dues which they had to pay to the lords. They also suffered frequently from local famines. Yet there is no doubt that the evils of their situation have been greatly exaggerated, for it has commonly been thought that the Revolution was to be explained by the misery and despair of the people, who could bear their burdens no longer.

530. Relatively Favorable Position of French Peasants. If, however, instead of comparing the situation of the French peas-

ant under the old régime with that of an English or American farmer today, we should contrast his position with that of his fellow peasant in Prussia, Russia, Austria, Italy, or Spain in the eighteenth century, it would be clear that in France the agricultural classes were really much better off than elsewhere on the Continent. Moreover, the fact that the population of France had steadily increased from seventeen millions after the

A Château and Pigeon House

The round tower at the right hand in front is the pigeon house. The wall inside is honeycombed with nests, and the pigeons fly in and out at the sides of the roof

close of the wars of Louis XIV to about twenty-five millions at the opening of the Revolution indicates that the general condition of the people was improving rather than growing worse.

The real reason why France was the first among the European countries to do away with the irritating survivals of feudalism was not that the nation was miserable and oppressed above all others, but that it was sufficiently free and enlightened to realize the evils and absurdities of the old régime. The French peasant no longer looked up to his lord as his ruler and protector, but viewed him as a sort of legalized robber who demanded a

share of his precious harvest, whose officers awaited the farmer at the crossing of the river to claim a toll, who would not let him sell his produce when he wished, or permit him to protect his fields from the ravages of the pigeons which his lord kept. While the country people were often discontented, they could not read or write, and it was naturally the better-educated townspeople who found most fault with the government and took the leading part in forwarding the Revolution.

531. France a Despotism in the Eighteenth Century. In the eighteenth century France was still a despotism. The king still ruled "by the grace of God," as Louis XIV had done. He needed to render account to no man for his governmental acts; he was responsible to God alone. The following illustrations will make clear the dangerous extent of the king's power.

In the first place, it was he who levied each year the heaviest of the taxes, the hated *taille*, from which the privileged classes were exempted. This tax brought in about one sixth of the whole revenue of the State. The amount collected was kept secret, and no report was made to the nation of what was done with it or, for that matter, with any other part of the king's income. Indeed, no distinction was made between the king's private funds and the State treasury, whereas in England the monarch was given a stated allowance. The king of France could issue as many drafts payable to bearer as he wished; the royal officials must pay all such orders and ask no questions.

532. Arbitrary Imprisonment. The king not only controlled his subjects' purses, but had a terrible authority over their persons as well. He could issue orders for the arrest and imprisonment of anyone he pleased. Without trial or formality of any sort a person might be cast into a dungeon for an indefinite period, until the king happened to remember him again or was reminded of him by the poor man's friends. These notorious orders of arrest were called "sealed letters." They were not difficult for anyone who had influence with the king or his favorites to obtain, and they furnished a terribly easy way of disposing of an enemy. These arbitrary orders lead one to

appreciate the importance of the provision of Magna Carta which runs: "No freeman shall be taken or imprisoned except by the lawful judgment of his peers and in accordance with the law of the land." Some of the most eminent Frenchmen of the time were shut up by the king's order, often on account of books or pamphlets written by them which displeased the king or those about him.

533. The *Parlements* and their Protests. Yet, notwithstanding the seemingly unlimited powers of the French king, and in spite of the fact that France had no written constitution and no congress to which the nation sent representatives, the monarch was by no means absolutely free to do just as he pleased. For example, the high courts of law, the so-called *parlements*, could often hamper him and his ministers.

These resembled the English Parliament in almost nothing but name. The French *parlements*, of which the most important one was at Paris and a dozen more were scattered about the provinces, did not, however, confine themselves solely to the business of trying lawsuits. They claimed that when the king decided to make a new law he must send it to them to be registered, for how, otherwise, could they adjust their decisions to it? Although they acknowledged that the right to make the laws belonged to the monarch, they nevertheless often sent a "protest" to the king instead of registering an edict which they disapproved. They would urge that the king's ministers had misled his Majesty. They would also take pains to have their protest printed and sold on the streets at a penny or two a copy, so that people should get the idea that the *parlements* were defending the nation against the oppressive measures of the king's ministers.

Struggles between the *parlements* and the king's ministers were very frequent in the eighteenth century. They prepared the way for the Revolution by bringing important questions to the attention of the people; for there were no newspapers and no parliamentary or congressional debates to enable the public to understand the policy of the government. By their protests

the *parlements* helped the growing discontent with a government which was carried on in secret and which left the nation at the mercy of the men who might get the king under their influence.

534. Attempts to encourage Discussion of Public Questions. Although there were no daily newspapers to discuss public questions, large numbers of pamphlets were written and circulated by individuals whenever there was an important crisis; these answered much the same purpose as the editorials in a modern newspaper. We have already seen how French philosophers and reformers, like Voltaire and Diderot, had been encouraged by the freedom of speech which prevailed in England, and how industriously they had sown the seeds of discontent in their own country. We have seen how in popular works, in poems and stories and plays, and above all in the *Encyclopedia*, they explained the new scientific discoveries, attacked the old beliefs and misapprehensions, and encouraged progress.

II. How Louis XVI tried to play the Benevolent Despot

535. Accession of Louis XVI (1774). In 1774 Louis XV[1] died, after a disgraceful reign of which it does not seem necessary to say much. His unsuccessful wars, which had ended with the loss of all his American possessions and the victory of his enemies in India (§§ 473, 479), had brought France to the verge of bankruptcy. The taxes were already so heavy as to arouse universal complaint, and yet the government was running behind seventy millions of dollars a year. The king's personal conduct was scandalous, and he allowed his courtiers to meddle in public affairs and plunder the royal treasury for themselves and their favorites. When at last he was carried off by smallpox everyone hailed, with hopes of better times, the accession of his grandson and successor, Louis XVI.

[1] He came to the throne in 1715 as a boy of five, on the death of Louis XIV, his great-grandfather.

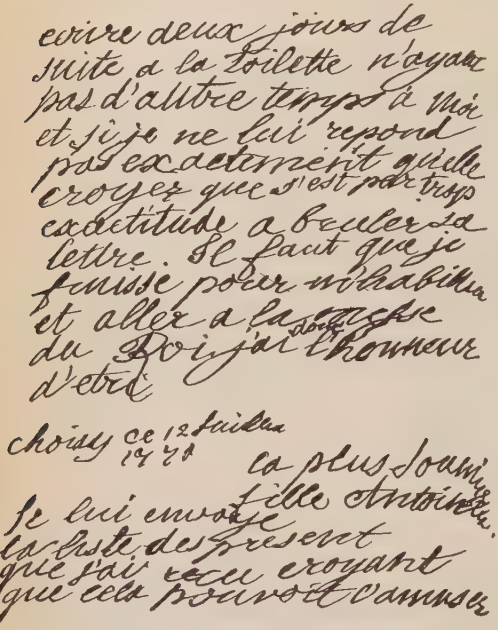
536. Character of Louis XVI. The new king was but twenty years old, poorly educated, indolent, unsociable, and very fond of hunting and of pottering about in a workshop, where he spent his happiest hours. He was a well-meaning young man, with none of his grandfather's vices, who tried now and then to

COURT SCENE AT VERSAILLES

The king is surrounded by princes of the royal family and the greatest nobles of France while he dresses and is shaved upon rising in the morning (the *levée*). Similar ceremonies were performed when the king went to bed at night (the *couchée*). The bed, hung with rich tapestries, is behind the railing. The door at the left leads into a small room — called the Bull's Eye Room (*salon de l'Œil-de-bœuf*), from the round window above the door — where the ambassadors and other dignitaries waited to be admitted, and while waiting often planned and plotted how to win the king's favor. Louis XVI's bedroom at Versailles is still preserved, in much of its old-time splendor; for the palace is now a museum

attend to the disagreeable business of government, and would gladly have made his people happy if that had not required more energy than he possessed. He had little of the interest in public affairs that we found in Frederick the Great or Catherine II; he was never tempted to rise as they had at five o'clock in the morning in order to read State papers.

537. Marie Antoinette. His wife was the beautiful Marie Antoinette, daughter of Maria Theresa. The marriage had been arranged in 1770 with a view of maintaining the alliance which had been concluded between France and Austria in 1756 (§ 446). The Austrian princess was only nineteen years old when she became queen of France. She was light-hearted and eager for pleasure. She did not like the formal etiquette of the court at Versailles and often shocked people by her thoughtless pranks. She loved to manage matters and did not hesitate to interfere in the government when she wished to help one of her favorites or to make trouble for someone she disliked.



A Letter of Marie Antoinette

From a letter written July 12, 1770, to her mother, Maria Theresa. The immaturity of the handwriting, the mistakes in spelling, and general carelessness show what an undeveloped girl she was when she came to the gay court of Versailles

538. Turgot, Controller General (1774–1776). At the outset Louis XVI took his duties very seriously. He almost immediately placed the ablest of all the French economists, Turgot, in the most important of the government offices, that of controller general.

The first and most natural measure was economy, for only

in that way could the government be saved from bankruptcy and the burden of taxation be lightened. Turgot felt that the vast amount spent in maintaining the luxury of the royal court at Versailles should be reduced. The establishments of the king, the queen, and the princes cost the State annually about twelve million dollars. Then the French king had long been accustomed to grant "pensions" in a reckless manner to his favorites, and this required nearly twelve million dollars more.

Any attempt, however, to reduce this amount would arouse the immediate opposition of the courtiers, and it was the courtiers who really governed France. They were constantly about the monarch from morning until night; therefore they had an obvious advantage over Turgot, who saw him only in business hours. In May, 1776, the king finally consented to dismiss Turgot, and most of his reforms were undone.

539. Necker's Financial Report. Necker, who after a brief interval succeeded Turgot, contributed to the progress of the coming revolution in two ways: He borrowed vast sums of money in order to carry on the war which France, as the ally of the United States, had undertaken against England. This greatly embarrassed the treasury later and helped to produce the financial crisis which was the immediate cause of the French Revolution. Secondly, he gave the nation its first opportunity of learning what was done with the public funds, by presenting to the king (February, 1781) a *report* on the financial condition of the kingdom; this was published and eagerly read. There the people could see for the first time how much the *taille* and the salt tax actually took from them, and how much the king spent on himself and his favorites.

540. Calonne predicts Bankruptcy (1786). Necker was soon followed by Calonne, who may be said to have precipitated the French Revolution. He was very popular at first with king and courtiers, for he spent the public funds far more recklessly than his predecessors. But, naturally, there soon came a time when he could obtain no more money. At last Calonne, finding himself desperately put to it, informed the astonished king that

the State was on the verge of bankruptcy, and that in order to save it a radical reformation of the whole public order was necessary. This report of Calonne's may be taken as the beginning of the French Revolution, for it was the first of the series of events that led to the calling of a representative assembly which abolished the old régime and gave France a written constitution.

QUESTIONS

I. How should the French Revolution be distinguished from the Reign of Terror? What is the meaning of "old régime"? Why was France so poorly organized in the eighteenth century? Give some examples of the differences which existed between the various provinces. Why were the taxes burdensome? Who were the privileged classes, and what were their privileges? Give examples of the feudal dues. In what respects was the French peasant more happily situated than his fellows in other parts of Europe? What were the chief powers of the French monarch? What were "sealed letters"? What did the *parlements* do to forward the coming revolution? What is meant by public opinion, and what chances does it have to express itself today that it did not have in France before the Revolution?

II. Who was Louis XVI? Tell something of his wife. Why did Turgot fail to remedy any of the existing evils? What happened under Necker to forward the Revolution? Why was Calonne forced to admit that he could not carry on the government unless reforms were introduced?

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

I. Reforms of the National Assembly (1789–1791)

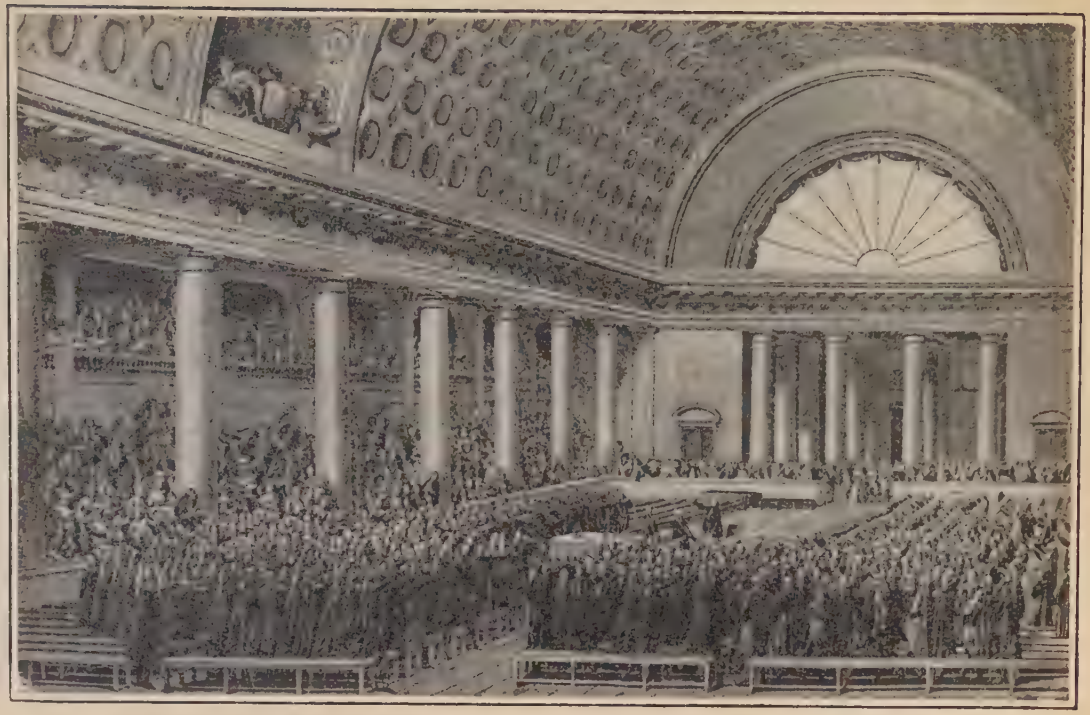
541. How the Estates General was Summoned. Calonne first induced the king to summon in 1787 an assembly of *Notables*,—nobles, bishops, and government officials,—and tried to persuade them to approve a series of reforms which he hoped would put the treasury on a better basis. But they had no confidence in Calonne and no inclination to give up their privileges and exemptions. The king thereupon dismissed Calonne and sent the Notables home. He then tried to get the *parlements* to ratify some new taxes, but they refused. The *parlement* of Paris resolved to make as much trouble as possible for the king's ministers and gain popularity for itself. So it declared, "Only the nation assembled in the Estates General can give the consent necessary to establish a permanent tax." "Only the nation," the *parlement* continued, "after it has learned the true state of the finances can destroy the existing evils and injustices." At length the king decided to summon the Estates General in May, 1789.

542. Question of voting by Estate or by Head. The Estates General had originated in the fourteenth century (§ 331) and was made up of representatives elected by the nobility, clergy, and Third Estate, each sending an equal number of delegates. These delegates were not expected to consider the needs of the nation *as a whole* but of their own particular class. So each of the three groups sat by itself, and each came to a separate agreement and cast a single vote for its class. They did not form a single body deliberating and voting individually, like a modern House of Representatives. The Estates had not met since 1614,

and there was much discussion in regard to the nature and powers of the body. But there was a general feeling that the system of voting by class was absurd, for the two privileged orders could outvote the representatives of the nation at large, and they were likely to do so when it came to abolishing their old privileges and exemptions. The king's ministers finally agreed that the Third Estate might have twice as many representatives (namely, six hundred) as either of the other orders, but the king refused to permit the assembly to sit and vote as a single body.

543. The *Cahiers*. We have an extraordinary proof that France was ready for a great reform in the list of grievances and suggestions for improvement which, following an ancient custom, the king asked each town and village throughout France to prepare. These were the so-called *cahiers* (pronounced kà yā'). The *cahiers* agreed that the chief evils were the old confusion, the autocratic powers of the king and his ministers, and the absence of a constitution setting forth the rights of the nation and limiting the power of the monarch. No one dreamed as yet of getting rid of the king altogether and establishing a republic, as was done later, but most thoughtful people were tired of the old absolute monarchy.

544. How the Estates General became a National Assembly (June, 1789). With these ideas in mind, the deputies assembled in Versailles and held their first session on May 5, 1789. In spite of the king's commands the representatives of the Third Estate refused to organize themselves in the old way as a separate class. They sent invitation after invitation to the deputies of the clergy and nobility, requesting them to join the people's representatives and discuss together the great interests of the nation. Some of the more liberal of the nobles—Lafayette, for example—and a large minority of the clergy wished to meet with the deputies of the Third Estate. But they were outvoted, and the deputies of the Third Estate, losing patience, finally declared themselves, on June 17, a "National Assembly." They argued that, since they represented at least



THE OPENING OF THE ESTATES GENERAL

ninety-six per cent of the nation, the deputies of the privileged orders might be neglected altogether as a worse than useless element in the assembly. *This transformed the old feudal Estates, voting by class, into the first modern national representative assembly on the continent of Europe.*

545. The Tennis-Court Oath. Under the influence of his courtiers the king tried to restore the old system by arranging a "royal" session of the three orders, at which he presided in person. He presented a long program of reforms, and then bade the Estates sit apart, according to the old custom. But it was like bidding water to run uphill. Three days before, when the members of the Third Estate had found themselves excluded from their regular place of meeting on account of the preparations for the royal session, they had betaken themselves to a neighboring building called the "Tennis Court." Here, on June 20, they took the famous Tennis-Court oath, "to come together wherever circumstances may dictate, until the constitution of the kingdom shall be established."

Consequently, when the king finished his address and commanded the three estates to resume their separate sessions, most of the bishops, some of the parish priests, and a great part of the nobility obeyed; the rest sat still, uncertain what they should do. When the master of ceremonies ordered them to comply with the king's commands, Mirabeau, the most distinguished statesman among the deputies, told him bluntly that they would not leave their places except at the point of the bayonet. The weak king almost immediately gave in and a few days later directed all the deputies of the two privileged estates who had not already done so to join the commons.

546. The Fall of the Bastille (July 14, 1789). The National Assembly now began in earnest the great task of preparing a constitution. It was soon interrupted, however, by events at Paris. The king had been advised by those about him to gather the Swiss and German troops who formed the royal guard, so that if he decided to send the insolent deputies home he would be able to put down any disorder which might result.

THE TENNIS-COURT OATH

From a painting of the Revolutionary period, showing the excited crowd of deputies in the barnlike court swearing that they will not separate until they have prepared a constitution for France

On July 14 crowds of people assembled, determined to procure arms to protect themselves and mayhap to perform some daring "deed of patriotism." One of the bands turned to the ancient fortress of the Bastille. The castle had long had a bad reputation as a place of confinement for prisoners of State and for those imprisoned by "sealed letters" (§ 532). When the mob demanded admission, it was naturally denied them, and they were fired upon and nearly a hundred were killed. Nevertheless, after a brief attack the place was surrendered, and the mob rushed into the gloomy pile. They found only seven prisoners; but one poor fellow had lost his wits and another had no idea why he had been kept there for years. The captives were freed amidst great enthusiasm, and the people soon set to work to demolish the walls. The anniversary of the fall of the Bastille is still celebrated as the great national holiday of France.

547. Abolition of Feudalism (August, 1789). About the first of August news began to reach the National Assembly of serious riots in the provinces. In some cases the peasants burned the country houses of the nobles so as to destroy the registers enumerating the feudal dues. This led to the first important reforms of the Assembly. A momentous resolution doing away with the survivals of serfdom and other institutions of feudalism was passed in a night session (August 4–5) amid great excitement. The exclusive right of the nobility to hunt and to maintain pigeon houses was abolished, and the peasant was permitted to kill game which he found on his land. The tithes of the Church were done away with. Exemptions from the payment of taxes were abolished forever. All citizens, without distinction of birth, were thereafter to be eligible to any office. Moreover, all the peculiar privileges in the various provinces were revoked.

All France was to have the same laws, and its citizens everywhere were henceforth to be treated in the same way by the State. The Assembly soon went a step farther in consolidating and unifying France. It wiped out the old provinces altogether, by dividing the whole country into districts of convenient size,

called *departments*. These were much more numerous than the ancient divisions and were named after rivers and mountains. This obliterated from the map all reminders of the ancient feudal disunion. (Compare Map 7.)

548. The Declaration of the Rights of Man. Many of the *cahiers* had suggested that the Estates should draw up a clear statement of the rights of the individual citizen.

This Declaration (completed August 26) is one of the most notable documents in the history of Europe. It not only aroused general enthusiasm when it was first published, but it appeared over and over again, in a modified form, in the succeeding French constitutions, and has been the model for similar declarations in many of the other continental states. Behind each article there was some crying evil of long standing against which the people wished to be forever protected.

The Declaration sets forth that "Men are born and remain equal in rights." "Law is the expression of the general will. Every citizen has a right to participate, personally or through his representative, in its formation. It must be the same for all." "No person shall be accused, arrested, or imprisoned except in the cases and according to the forms prescribed by law." "No one shall be disquieted on account of his opinions, including his religious views, provided that their manifestation does not disturb the public order." "Every citizen may speak, write, and print with freedom, being responsible, however, for such abuses of this freedom as shall be defined by law." Taxes were to be imposed and used according to the wishes of the nation's representatives.

549. Suspicion of the Court. The king hesitated to ratify the Declaration of the Rights of Man, and about the first of October rumors spread that, under the influence of the courtiers, he was calling together troops and preparing for another attempt to put an end to the Revolution similar to that which the attack on the Bastille had frustrated. It was said that the new national colors—red, white, and blue—had been trampled under foot at a banquet at Versailles in the presence of the

queen. These things, along with the scarcity of food due to the poor crops of the year, aroused the excitable Paris populace.

550. The King carried to Paris (October, 1789). On October 5 several thousand women and a number of armed men marched out to Versailles to ask bread of the king, in whom they had great confidence personally, however suspicious they might be of his friends and advisers. Lafayette marched after the mob with the national guard to keep order, but did not prevent some of the rabble from invading the king's palace the next morning and nearly murdering the queen, who had become very unpopular.

Louis XVI

The mob declared that the king must accompany them to Paris, and he was obliged to consent. So they gayly escorted the "baker and the baker's wife and the baker's boy," as they jocularly termed the king and queen and the little crown prince, to the Palace of the Tuileries, where the king took up his residence, practically a prisoner, as it proved. The National Assembly soon followed him and resumed its sittings in a riding school near the Tuileries.

This transfer of the king and the Assembly to the capital was the first great misfortune of the Revolution. At a serious crisis the government was placed at the mercy of the leaders of the disorderly elements of Paris.

551. Confiscation of Church Property. As we have seen, the Church in France was very rich and retained many of its medieval privileges. Its higher officials, the bishops and abbots, received very large revenues, and often a single prelate held a

number of well-paying positions, the duties of which he neglected. The parish priests, on the other hand, who really performed the manifold and important functions of the Church, were scarcely able to live on their incomes. This unjust apportionment of the vast revenue of the Church naturally suggested the idea that if the State seized the Church's possessions it could see that those who did the work were properly paid for it, and might, at the same time, secure a handsome sum which would help the government out of its financial troubles.

The tithes had been abolished in August along with feudal dues. On November 2 a decree was passed providing that "All the ecclesiastical possessions are at the disposal of the nation on condition that it provides properly for the expenses of maintaining religious services, for the support of those who conduct them, and for the succor of the poor." This decree deprived the bishops and priests of their former source of income and made them dependent on salaries paid by the State. The monks, monasteries, and convents, too, lost their property.[1]

552. The Civil Constitution of the Clergy. The Assembly set to work completely to reorganize the Church. The one hundred and thirty-four ancient bishoprics, some of which dated back to the Roman Empire, were replaced by the eighty-three new departments into which France had already been divided. Each of these became the diocese of a bishop, who was looked upon as an officer of the State and was to be elected by the people. The priests too were to be chosen by the people, and their salaries were much increased, so that even in the smallest villages they received over twice the minimum amount paid under the old régime.

This Civil Constitution of the Clergy was the first serious mistake on the part of the National Assembly. While the half-

[1] The National Assembly resolved to issue a paper currency for which the newly acquired lands should serve as security. Of these *assignats*, as this paper money was called, about forty billions of francs were issued in the next seven years. But since so much land was thrown on the market, its value at once decreased, and the *assignats* were worth less and less as time went on. Ultimately a great part of them was repudiated.

feudalized Church had sadly needed reform, the sweeping changes which were introduced and the proposal to have the people elect the bishops and priests shocked thousands of those who had hitherto enthusiastically welcomed the great reforms which the Assembly had decreed. Louis XVI, who was a pious man, gave his assent to the changes, but with the feeling that he might be losing his soul by so doing. From that time on he became at heart an enemy of the Revolution.

The discontent with the new system on the part of the clergy led to another serious error by the Assembly. It required the clergy to take an oath to be faithful to the law and the new French constitution. Forty-six thousand parish priests refused to sacrifice their religious scruples. As time went on, the "non-juring" (*non*, "not" and *jurare*, "swear") clergy were dealt with more and more harshly, and the way was prepared for the horrors of the Reign of Terror.

II. France becomes involved in a War with Other European Powers

553. Permanent Reforms of 1789. We have now studied the progress and nature of the revolution which destroyed the old régime and created modern France. Through it the unjust privileges and the local differences were abolished and the people were admitted to a share in the government. This vast reform had been accomplished without serious disturbance, and, with the exception of some of the changes in the Church, it had been welcomed with enthusiasm by the French nation.

554. Conditions leading to the Reign of Terror. This permanent and peaceful revolution was followed by a period of violence known as the Reign of Terror. This was caused not so much by the *friends* of the Revolution as by its *enemies* within and without France, who were eager at any cost to undo the great work of the National Assembly. After the fall of the Bastille some of the nobility, under the leadership of the king's youngest brother, the count of Artois, had left the country.

They were joined later by other nobles, and collected a little army with which they proposed to invade France and reëstablish the old régime. Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette tried to join them in June, 1791, but were arrested at Varennes near the border and brought back to Paris. The National Assembly pretended that the king had not really fled, but had been carried off by his bad advisers.

555. Declaration of Pillnitz. The queen's brother, Leopold, the Austrian ruler, was greatly agitated over the forcible arrest of the French king and declared that the European powers should combine to "check the dangerous excesses of the French Revolution," which he thought threatened the power of other monarchs. He induced the king of Prussia to join him in the famous Declaration of Pillnitz (August, 1791), in which he suggested that the European powers unite in an attempt to force the French people to give back to Louis XVI his former rights.

The Declaration was little more than an empty threat, but it seemed to the French people a proof that the monarchs were ready to help the French nobles to reëstablish the old régime against the wishes of the nation and at the cost of infinite bloodshed. The idea of foreign rulers meddling with their affairs would in itself have been intolerable to a proud people like the French, even if the new reforms had not been endangered. Had it been the object of the allied monarchs to hasten instead of to prevent the fall of Louis XVI, they could hardly have chosen a better method than the Declaration of Pillnitz.

556. The Newspapers. The political excitement and the enthusiasm for the Revolution were kept up by the newspapers which had been established, especially in Paris, since the meeting of the Estates General. The people did not need longer to rely upon an occasional pamphlet, as was the case before 1789. Many journals representing widely different opinions were published. Some were no more than a periodical editorial written by one man. Others, like the famous *Moniteur*, were much like our papers of today and contained news, reports of the debates in the Assembly, announcements of theaters, advertisements, etc.

557. The Jacobins. Of the numerous political clubs, by far the most famous was that of the "Jacobins." This name arose from the fact that when the Assembly moved into Paris, some of the representatives of the Third Estate rented a large room in the monastery of the Jacobin monks, not far from the building where the National Assembly itself met. The aim of this society was to discuss questions which were about to come before the National Assembly. The club decided beforehand what should be the policy of its members and how they should vote.

The Jacobins rapidly developed branches of the mother society at Paris and in this way exercised a considerable control over public opinion throughout France. They were bent on opposing any return to the old institutions under which France had suffered so long. At first they were not in favor of a republic, but finally came to the conclusion that the old monarchy must be abolished.

558. Completion of the First French Constitution. At last the National Assembly put the finishing touches on the new constitution for France upon which it had been working for two years, and the king swore to observe it. The discord and suspicion of the past few months were to be forgotten. The government was turned over to the new congress, or Legislative Assembly, provided for in the constitution. This met for the first time October 1, 1791.

559. Problems facing the Legislative Assembly. The new assembly was made up for the most part of new and inexperienced young men, for the National Assembly had voted that none of its members should be eligible for election to the Legislative Assembly, which it had created. France was in a critical condition; there was a general distrust of the king, the emigrant nobles were conspiring on the borders, foreign kings had suggested the invasion of France to restore the old régime, and large classes in France itself were opposed to certain features of the new order, especially the laws concerning the Church.

The growing discord in the nation was increased by the severe

edicts which the Legislative Assembly immediately issued against the emigrant nobles and the nonjuring clergy. "The Frenchmen assembled on the frontier" were ordered to return to France by January 1, 1792. If they failed to do this, they were to be regarded as convicted traitors to their country, to be punished, if caught, with death, and their property was to be confiscated. Clergymen who refused to accept the Civil Constitution of the Clergy and the new constitution of the National Assembly were regarded as suspects and finally ordered to leave the country.

In this way the Assembly aroused the active hostility of a great part of the priests who had formerly supported the Third Estate. It lost, moreover, the confidence of the great mass of faithful Catholics,—merchants, artisans, and peasants,—who had approved the reforms but would not desert their religious leaders.

560. France involved in War with Austria and Prussia (1792). By far the most important act of the Legislative Assembly during the one year of its existence was its starting a war between France and Austria. It little dreamed that this was the beginning of wars between revolutionary France and the rest of western Europe which were to last, with slight interruption, for over twenty years.

To many of the leaders in the Assembly it seemed that the existing conditions were intolerable. The emigrant nobles were forming little armies on the boundaries of France and had, as we have seen, induced Austria and Prussia to consider interfering in French affairs. The Assembly suspected that Louis was negotiating with foreign rulers and would be glad to have them take a hand and reëstablish him in his old despotic power. The deputies argued, therefore, that a war against the hated Austria would unite the sympathies of the nation and force the king to show his true character, for he would be obliged either to become the nation's leader or show himself the traitor they suspected him to be.

It was with a heavy heart that the king, urged on by the clamors of the Assembly, declared war upon Austria in April,

1792. The unpopularity of the king only increased, however. In June a mob of Parisians invaded the Palace of the Tuileries, and the king might have been killed had he not consented to don the "cap of liberty," the badge of the "citizen patriots."

When France declared war, Prussia immediately allied itself with Austria. As the Prussian and Austrian armies approached the French boundaries it became clearer and clearer that the king was utterly incapable of defending France, and the Assembly began to consider the question of deposing him. The duke of Brunswick, who was at the head of the Prussian forces, took the very worst means of helping the king, by issuing a manifesto in which he threatened utterly to destroy Paris should the king suffer any harm.

III. Founding of the First French Republic

561. Insurrection of August 10, 1792. Angered by this declaration and aroused by the danger, the populace of Paris again invaded the Tuileries, August 10, 1792, and the king was obliged to take refuge in the building in which the Assembly was in session. Those who instigated the attack were men who had set their hearts upon doing away with the king altogether and establishing a republic. A group of them had taken possession of the city hall, pushed the old members of the municipal council from their seats, and taken the government in their own hands. In this way the members of the Paris *city government* (or Paris *Commune*, as the French called it) became the leaders in the new revolution which established the First French Republic.

562. France a Republic (September 22, 1792). The Assembly agreed with the Paris Commune in desiring a republic. If, as was proposed, France was henceforth to do without a king, it was obviously necessary that the monarchical constitution so recently completed should be replaced by a republican one. Consequently, the Assembly arranged that the people should elect delegates to a constitutional *convention*, which should

draw up a new system of government. The Convention succeeded the Legislative Assembly September 21, and its first act was to abolish the ancient monarchy and proclaim France a republic. It seemed to the enthusiasts of the time that a new era of liberty had dawned, now that the long oppression by "despots" was ended forever. The twenty-second day of September, 1792, was reckoned as the first day of the Year One of French liberty.[1]

563. September Massacres (1792). Meanwhile the usurping Paris Commune had taken matters into its own hands and had brought discredit upon the cause of liberty by one of the most atrocious acts in history. On the pretext that Paris was full of traitors who sympathized with the Austrians and the emigrant nobles, they had filled the prisons with some three thousand citizens. From September 2 to 6 hundreds of these were executed with scarcely a pretense of a trial, and the same thing was done in the provinces. The members of the Paris Commune who perpetrated this deed probably hoped to terrify those who might still dream of returning to the old system of government.

564. French Military Successes. Late in August the Prussians crossed the French boundary and on September 2 took the fortress of Verdun. It now seemed as if there was nothing to prevent their marching upon Paris. The French general Dumouriez blocked their advance, however, and without a regular battle caused the enemy to retreat, for the Prussian and Austrian rulers had little interest in the war. The French now invaded Germany and took several important towns on the Rhine, including Mainz, which gladly opened its gates to them. They also occupied the Austrian Netherlands and Savoy.

565. Execution of the King, January, 1793. Meanwhile the new Convention was puzzled to determine what it was best to

[1] A committee of the Convention was appointed to draw up a new republican calendar. The year was divided into twelve months of thirty days each. The five days preceding September 22, at the end of the year, were holidays. Each month was divided into three *decades*, and each tenth day was a holiday. The days were no longer dedicated to Christian saints, but to agricultural implements, vegetables, and domestic animals.

do with the king. A considerable party felt that he was guilty of treason in secretly encouraging the foreign powers to come to his aid. He was therefore brought to trial, and when it came to a final vote, he was, by a small majority, condemned to death. He mounted the scaffold on January 21, 1793, with the fortitude of a martyr.

566. France declares War on England, February, 1793. The joy of the Convention over the conquests which their armies were making encouraged them to offer the assistance of the new French Republic to any country that wished to establish its freedom by throwing off the yoke of monarchy. They even suggested a republic to the English people. England, however, irritated by the loss of trade and horrified by the execution of Louis XVI, refused to recognize the new French Republic. Whereupon, on February 1, 1793, France declared war on Great Britain, a country which proved her most persistent enemy.

567. First Alliance against France. The allies had hitherto been suspicious of one another and fearful lest Russia should take advantage of their preoccupation with France to seize more than her share in the second partition of Poland (§ 452). But all differences were now forgotten in the general indignation at the execution of Louis XVI, and the allies joined in a plan to invade France from every side.

When in March, 1793, Spain and the Holy Roman Empire joined the alliance, France was at war with all her neighbors. The Austrians defeated Dumouriez and drove the French out of the Austrian Netherlands. Dumouriez, disgusted by the failure of the Convention to support him and by their beheading of the king, deserted to the enemy with a few hundred soldiers who consented to follow him.

IV. The Reign of Terror

568. The Committee of Public Safety. The loss of the Netherlands and the treason of their best general made a deep impression upon the members of the Convention. If the new

French Republic was to defend itself against the "tyrants" without and its many enemies within, it could not wait for the Convention to draw up an elaborate, permanent constitution. An efficient government must be devised immediately to maintain the loyalty of the people to the Republic and to raise and equip armies and direct their commanders. The Convention accordingly put the government into the hands of a small committee, consisting originally of nine, later of twelve, of its members. This famous Committee of Public Safety was given practically unlimited powers. "We must," one of the leaders exclaimed, "found a despotism of liberty in order to crush the despotism of kings."

569. The Girondists. Within the Convention itself there were two groups of active men who came into bitter conflict over the policy to be pursued. There was, first, the party of the Girondists, so called because their leaders came from the department of Gironde, in which the great city of Bordeaux lay. They were moderate republicans and counted among their numbers some speakers of remarkable eloquence. They were not, however, men of sufficient experience to direct affairs in the terrible difficulties in which France found herself after the execution of the king. They consequently lost their influence, and a new party, called the Mountain, from the high seats that they occupied in the Convention, gained the ascendancy.

570. The Extreme Republican Mountain. The Mountain was composed of the most vigorous and uncompromising Jacobins. They believed that the French people had been depraved by the slavery to which their kings had subjected them. Everything, they argued, which suggested the former rule of kings must be wiped out. A new France should be created in which Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity should take the place of the tyranny of princes, the insolence of nobles, and the exactions of the priests. The leaders of the Mountain held that the mass of the people were by nature good and upright, but that there were a number of adherents of the old system who would, if they could, undo the great work of the Revolution and lead the

people back to the slavery that they had formerly lived in under a king. All who were suspected by the Mountain of having the least sympathy with the nobles or persecuted priests were branded as *counter-revolutionary*. The Mountain was willing to resort to any measures, however shocking, to rid the nation of those suspected of counter-revolutionary tendencies, and its leaders relied upon the populace of Paris, which had been disappointed that "liberty" had not bettered their condition, to aid them in reaching their ends.

571. Girondists expelled from the Convention. The Girondists, on the other hand, abhorred the furious Paris mob and the cruel fanatics who composed the Commune of the capital. They argued that Paris was not France, and that it had no right to assume a despotic rule over the nation. They proposed that the Paris Commune should be dissolved and that the Convention should remove to another town where they would not be subject to the intimidation of the Paris mob. The Mountain thereupon accused the Girondists of an attempt to break up the Republic, "one and indivisible," by questioning the supremacy of Paris and the duty of the provinces to follow the lead of the capital. The mob, thus encouraged, rose against the Girondists. On June 2, 1793, it surrounded the meeting place of the Convention, and deputies of the Paris Commune demanded the expulsion from the Convention of the Girondist leaders, who were placed under arrest.

572. Civil War in France. This act of violence was resented by the great cities of Bordeaux, Marseille, and Lyon, who favored the Girondists and hated the Mountain and its ally, the Paris mob. These cities therefore ventured to revolt against the Convention. Moreover, the peasants in the old province of Brittany, who still loved the monarchy, rebelled against those who had killed their king and were persecuting the priests. But the Committee of Public Safety did not hesitate to send troops to put down these rebellions and to wreak a terrible vengeance on all those who dared to revolt against the Mountain.

573. The Republic drives off its Foreign Enemies. While the Committee of Public Safety had been suppressing insurrections within the country, it had taken active measures to meet its foreign enemies. The distinguished military organizer, Carnot, had become a member of the committee in August and immediately called for a general levy of troops. He soon had seven hundred and fifty thousand men; these he divided into thirteen armies and dispatched them against the allies. The English and Hanoverians, who were besieging Dunkirk, were driven off and the Austrians were defeated, so that by the close of the year 1793 all danger from invasion was past, for the time being at least.

574. The Reign of Terror. A special court, called the Revolutionary Tribunal, had been established to try all those suspected of being opposed to the Mountain and the new Republic. A terrible law was passed, declaring all those "suspects" who by their acts or remarks had shown themselves "enemies of liberty." The wives, fathers and mothers, and children of all the emigrant nobles were to be imprisoned. The guillotine was used to cut off the heads of those convicted of being counter-revolutionists.

In October the queen, Marie Antoinette, after a trial in which false and atrocious charges were brought against her,[1] was executed in Paris, and a number of high-minded and distinguished persons suffered a like fate. But the most horrible acts of the Reign of Terror were perpetrated in the provinces, where deputies of the Committee of Public Safety were sent with almost absolute military power to crush rebellions. A representative of the Convention had thousands of the people of Nantes shot down or drowned. The Convention proposed to destroy the great city of Lyon altogether, and though this decree was only partially carried out, thousands of its citizens were executed.[2]

[1] She had been guilty of encouraging the enemies of France to intervene.

[2] Paris during the Reign of Terror was not the gloomy place that we might imagine. Never did the inhabitants appear happier, never were the theaters and restaurants more crowded. The women wore tiny guillotines as ornaments, and the children were given toy guillotines and amused themselves decapitating the figures of "aristocrats."

575. Split in the Mountain. Soon the members of the radical party which was conducting the government began to disagree among themselves. Danton, a man of fiery zeal for the Republic, who had hitherto enjoyed great popularity with the Jacobins, became tired of bloodshed and believed that the system of terror was no longer necessary. On the other hand, Hébert, the leader of the Paris Commune, felt that the Revolution was not yet complete. He proposed, for example, that the worship of Reason should be substituted for the worship of God, and arranged a service in the great church of Notre Dame, where Reason, in the person of a handsome actress, took her place on the altar. The most powerful member of the Committee of Public Safety was Robespierre, who, although he was insignificant in person and a tiresome speaker, enjoyed a great reputation for republican virtue. He disapproved alike of Danton's moderation and of the worship of Reason advocated by the Commune. Through his influence the leaders of both the moderate and the extreme party were executed (March and April, 1794).

MAXIMILIAN ROBESPIERRE

576. Fall of Robespierre (July 27, 1794). It was, of course, impossible for Robespierre to maintain his dictatorship for long. When he had the Revolutionary Tribunal divided into sections and greatly increased the rapidity of the executions with a view to destroying all his enemies, his colleagues in the Convention began to fear that he would demand their heads next. A coali-

tion was formed against him, and the Convention ordered his arrest.[1] He called upon the Paris Commune to defend him, but the Convention roused Paris against its Commune, which was no longer powerful enough to intimidate the whole city, and he and his supporters were sent to the guillotine.

In successfully overthrowing Robespierre the Convention and Committee of Public Safety had rid the country of the only man who, owing to his popularity and his reputation for uprightness, could have prolonged the Reign of Terror. There was an immediate reaction after his death, for the country was weary of executions. The Revolutionary Tribunal henceforth convicted very few of those who were brought before it. Indeed, it turned upon those who had themselves been the leaders in the worst atrocities; for example, the public prosecutor, who had brought hundreds of victims to the guillotine in Paris, and the fanatics who had ordered the massacres at Nantes and Lyon. Within a few months the Jacobin Club at Paris was closed by the Convention, and the Commune abolished. In this way the Reign of Terror came to an end.

577. Constitution of the Year Three. The Convention now at last turned its attention to the great work for which it had originally been summoned and drew up a constitution for the Republic to take the place of the first French constitution which had provided for a king. The law-making power was now vested in a legislative assembly consisting of two houses. The lower house was called the Council of Five Hundred, and the upper chamber the Council of the Elders. Members of the latter were required to be at least forty years of age. The executive powers were put in the hands of a *Directory* of five persons, to be chosen by the two chambers.

578. End of the Convention (October, 1795). In October, 1795, the Convention finally dissolved itself, having governed the country during three years of unprecedented excitement, danger, and disorder. While it was responsible for the horrors of

[1] The date of Robespierre's fall is generally known as the Ninth of Thermidor, the day and month of the republican calendar.

the Reign of Terror, its committees had carried France through the terrible crisis of 1793. The civil war had been brought to a speedy end, and the alliance of foreign powers had been defeated. Meanwhile other committees appointed by the Convention had been quietly working upon the problem of bettering the system of education, which had been taken by the State out of the hands of the clergy. Progress had also been made toward establishing a single system of law for the whole country to replace the old confusion. The new republican calendar was not destined to survive many years, but the *metric system* of weights and measures introduced by the Convention has now been adopted by most European countries and is used by men of science in England and America.

On the other hand, the Reign of Terror, the depreciated paper currency,[1] and many hasty and unwise laws passed by the Convention had produced all sorts of disorder and uncertainty. The Directory did little to better conditions, and it was not until Napoleon's strong hand grasped the helm of government in the year 1800 that order was really restored.

QUESTIONS

I. What were Calonne's plans, and why did they fail? How did the Estates General come to be summoned in 1789? What were the chief questions raised in regard to their organization? What were the *cahiers*, and upon what main points did they agree? By what process did the Estates General turn into a national assembly? What were the causes and results of the attack on the Bastille? What were the chief provisions of the decree abolishing the feudal system? Give an account of the Declaration of the Rights of Man. Under what conditions was the National Assembly moved to Paris? What were the reforms made in the French Church? What immediate results did they have on the course of the Revolution?

II. Who were the emigrant nobles, and what was their plan? What were the results of the king's attempted flight in June, 1791? What

[1] See page 289 n. There were about forty billions of francs in assignats in circulation at the opening of 1796. At that time it required nearly three hundred francs in paper money to procure one in specie.

was the Declaration of Pillnitz? Who were the Jacobins? What various kinds of matter do we find in a modern newspaper? What measures were taken against the emigrant nobles and the nonjuring clergy? Why did the Legislative Assembly declare war on Austria?

III. How was the First French Republic established? Do you see any good reasons for the execution of Louis XVI? Why did France declare war on England? With what European powers was France at war by the spring of 1793?

IV. What was the need of a Committee of Public Safety? Who were the Girondists? the Mountain? What led to civil war in France, and what was the outcome of it? What do you understand by the Reign of Terror? Can you give any justification of the harsh measures taken by the Convention and its committees? What were Robespierre's views? What were the reasons for his fall? Describe the constitution of the Year Three. Review the chief acts of the Convention.

CHAPTER XXIX

THE CAREER OF NAPOLEON BONAPARTE

I. How Bonaparte First Distinguished Himself

579. The Napoleonic Period. The former military leaders of France had usually belonged to the nobility. During the Revolution they had either run away or been discredited as suspected enemies of the new Republic. Those who led the French troops to victory under the Reign of Terror were for the most part sprung from the people and had been selected by the Committee of Public Safety on account of their ability and not on account of aristocratic birth. Among the new commanders there was one who was destined to dominate the history of Europe for fifteen years as no man before him had ever done. The influence of Napoleon Bonaparte was, indeed, so overmastering that the epoch we are now entering may properly be called the Napoleonic Period.

580. Early Life of Bonaparte. General Bonaparte was born on the island of Corsica, August 15, 1769. He was of Italian origin and spoke Italian as a boy, although the island had been annexed to France shortly before his birth. His father was poor and found it hard to support his eight boys and girls, all of whom were one day to become kings and queens or, at worst, princes and princesses. When Napoleon was ten years old he was taken to France, where, after learning a little French, he was put into a military school to prepare for the army. Napoleon was very unhappy at school for the next five or six years. He soon came to hate the young French nobles who were studying there and wrote to his father, "I am tired of showing my poverty and seeing these shameless boys laughing over it, who are superior to me only in their wealth, but infinitely beneath me in

noble feelings." Gradually the ambition to free his little island country from French control grew up in him.

581. Bonaparte as a Corsican Patriot. On finishing his course in the military school Napoleon was made second lieutenant. Poor and without influence, he had little hope of any considerable advance in the French army, and he was drawn to his own country by a desire both to play a conspicuous part there and to help his family, which had been left in straitened circumstances by his father's death. He therefore absented himself from his command as often and as long as he could, and engaged in a series of intrigues in Corsica with a hope of getting control of the forces of the island. He fell out, however, with the authorities, and he and his family were banished in 1793 and fled to France.

582. Bonaparte wins the Confidence of the Directory. The following three years were for Bonaparte a period of great uncertainty. He had lost his love for Corsica, and as yet he had no foothold in France. He managed, however, to show his military skill and decision on two occasions and gained thereby the friendship of the Directory (§ 577). In the spring of 1796 he was made, by the Directory, commander in chief of the Army of Italy. This important appointment at the age of twenty-seven forms the opening of a military career which hardly finds a parallel in history, except that of Alexander the Great. And of all Bonaparte's campaigns, none is more astonishing, perhaps, than his first, that in Italy in 1796–1797.

583. The French make Peace with the Allies. It will be recalled that in 1793, after the execution of Louis XVI, most of the powers of Europe joined in an alliance against France and threatened to invade her. Instead, however, of being crushed by the overwhelming forces of the allies, the French armies managed before the end of the year to beat off their enemies so successfully that there was no further danger of an immediate attack. Prussia and Austria were far more interested in Poland, where a third and last division was being made of what remained of this unfortunate kingdom, than they were in keeping

the French out of the Austrian Netherlands. England, who had joined the war to help Prussia and Austria maintain the "balance of power" and defend the Netherlands as a protective barrier between Holland and revolutionary France, was disgusted at the lack of support she received. Lord Malmesbury,

CENTRAL EUROPE, TO ILLUSTRATE NAPOLEON'S CAMPAIGNS, 1796–1801

one of the English diplomats, declared that in his dealings with the allies he encountered only "shabby art and cunning, ill will, jealousy, and every sort of dirty passion."

By October, 1794, the Austrians had disappeared beyond the Rhine; the English could no longer protect Holland and retreated. The French later captured the Dutch fleet, which was imprisoned in the ice. The Dutch towns contained some enthu-

siastic republicans, who received the French cordially; the office of hereditary governor (§ 364), which was really that of king except in name, was abolished, and Holland became the Batavian Republic under French control. In three years the French had taken possession of the Austrian Netherlands, and western Germany as far as the Rhine, and had concluded peace with most of the allies. Early in 1796, on Bonaparte's advice, the Directory decided to attack Austria, their most dangerous remaining enemy, by sending two armies against her. Bonaparte was selected commander of the army which was to strike at Vienna through Italy.

584. The Italian Campaign (1796–1797). General Bonaparte had to face the forces not only of Austria but also of Sardinia, which had joined the allies against France in 1793. By marching north from Savona he skillfully separated his two enemies. He forced the Sardinian troops back toward Turin and compelled the king to make a treaty by which Savoy and Nice were ceded to France. Bonaparte was now free to advance into Lombardy. In a rapid and brilliant campaign he defeated the Austrians again and again, and marched his victorious army nearly to Vienna. He forced Austria to make peace and to cede the Austrian Netherlands to France. She also agreed to help France get practically the whole western bank of the Rhine. Bonaparte brought the ancient Venetian republic to an end, giving a part of it, including the city of Venice, to Austria and incorporating the western part into a new state, subject to France, called the Cisalpine Republic, which he patched together out of the small Italian states.

585. Bonaparte's Court at Milan. While the arrangements of the treaty were being made the young general established a brilliant court at a villa near Milan. "His salons," an observer informs us, "were filled with a throng of generals, officials, and purveyors, as well as the highest nobility and the most distinguished men of Italy, who came to solicit the favor of a glance or a moment's conversation." It would appear, from the report of a most extraordinary conversation which occurred at this

time, that Bonaparte had already conceived the rôle that he was to play later. He proposed to become ruler of France.

"What I have done so far," he declared, "is nothing. I am but at the opening of the career that I am to run. Do you suppose that I have gained my victories in Italy in order to advance the lawyers of the Directory? Do you think either that my object is to establish a republic? What a notion! . . . What the French want is Glory and the satisfaction of their vanity; as for Liberty, of that they have no conception. Look at the army! The victories we have just gained have given the French soldier his true character. I am everything to him. Let the Directory attempt to deprive me of my command and they will see who is the master. The nation must have a head, a head who is rendered illustrious by glory and not by theories of government, fine phrases, or the talk of idealists, of which the French understand not a whit."

EGYPTIAN CAMPAIGN

There is no doubt whom General Bonaparte had in mind when he spoke of the needed head of the French nation who should be "rendered illustrious by glory."

586. Appearance and Character of Napoleon. We naturally ask what manner of person this was who could frame such audacious schemes at twenty-eight and realize them at thirty years of age. He was a little man, hardly more than five feet two inches in height. At this time he was extremely thin, with searching eyes and rapid, if somewhat incorrect, speech. He was

NAPOLEON IN EGYPT

A group of French scholars accompanied Napoleon's army, and the serious study of Egyptology dates from his expedition

at once a dreamer and a man of supreme practical ability. He once told a friend that when he was a poor young lieutenant, with no prospects, he was wont to imagine just how he would wish things to be; then he would consider the exact steps to be taken. His utter unscrupulousness, tireless energy, and extraordinary military genius brought him to his goal. At twenty-eight he was head of the French armies; at thirty he was destined to become ruler of France itself.

587. The Egyptian Expedition (1798–1799). France was on the eve of a new war with the European powers. Bonaparte foresaw that if he could withdraw with some of France's best officers, the Directory, which was weak and inefficient, might soon find itself so embarrassed that he would be recalled as a national savior. He therefore organized an expedition to Egypt with the idea of cutting off England's trade with the East and perhaps of seizing her possessions in India. He managed to land his army safely at Alexandria, but the British fleet under Nelson destroyed the French fleet as it lay in the harbor and cut Bonaparte off from Europe. He easily defeated the Egyptian troops in the famous battle of the Pyramids (July 21, 1798) and then made an unsuccessful expedition into Syria. Here he received news from Europe which led him to desert the army in Egypt and hasten back with a few of his best officers. He reached France in October, 1799.

II. Bonaparte Ruler of France

588. Bonaparte overthrows the Directory (November, 1799). The Directory, one of the most corrupt bodies the world has ever seen, had completely disgraced itself at home and become involved in a new war with Austria. Bonaparte enjoyed sufficient support to overthrow the Directory a month after his return and have himself chosen *First Consul*. This *coup d'état*, or "stroke of state," as the French called it, put Bonaparte at the head of the government. He had a new constitution drawn up which was ratified by a vote of the nation.

589. Bonaparte Acceptable as First Consul. The accession of the popular young general to power was undoubtedly grateful to the majority of citizens, who longed above all for a stable government. The Swedish envoy wrote just after the *coup d'état*: "A legitimate monarch has perhaps never found a people more ready to do his bidding than Bonaparte, and it would be inexcusable if this talented general did not take advantage of this to introduce a better form of government upon a firmer basis. It is literally true that France will perform impossibilities in order to aid him in this. The people (with the exception of a despicable horde of anarchists) are so sick and weary of revolutionary horrors and folly that they believe that any change cannot fail to be for the better. . . . Even the royalists, whatever their views may be, are sincerely devoted to Bonaparte, for they attribute to him the intention of gradually restoring the old order of things. The indifferent element cling to him as the one most likely to give France peace. The enlightened republicans, although they tremble for their form of government, prefer to see a single man of talent possess himself of the power than a club of intriguers."

590. Second Alliance against France (1798). Upon becoming First Consul, General Bonaparte found France at war with England, Russia, Austria, Turkey, and some lesser states. These powers had formed an alliance in December, 1798, while he was in Egypt, and driven the French armies out of Germany and Italy. The results of his Italian campaign had thus been entirely undone. It now devolved upon the First Consul to reestablish the prestige of France abroad, as well as to restore order and prosperity at home, if he wished to maintain his position and realize his even more ambitious plans.

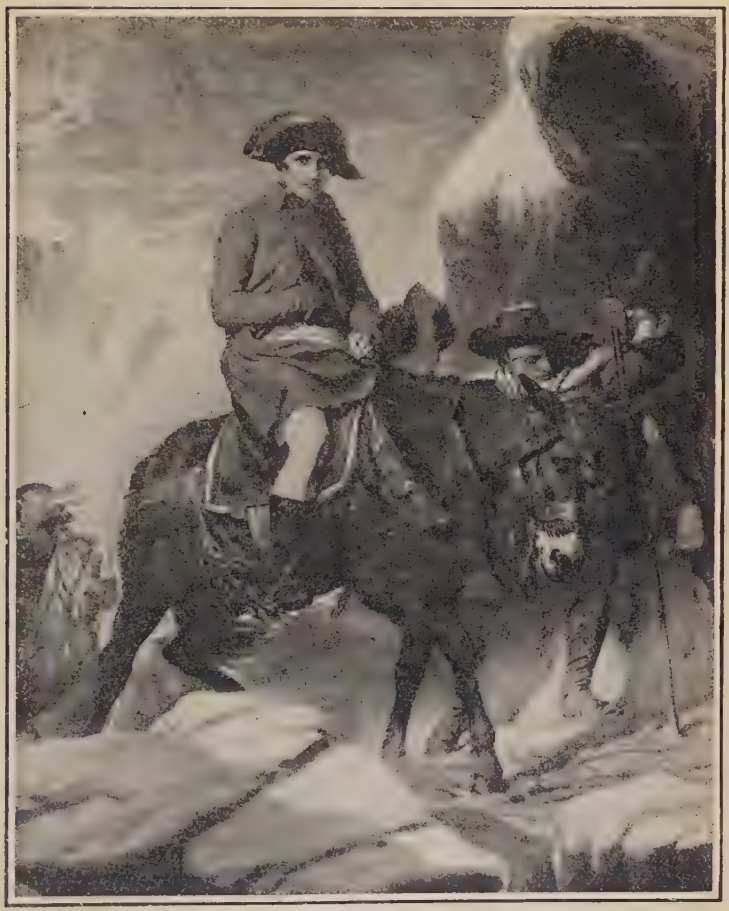
591. Bonaparte crosses the Alps. Bonaparte decided that the first step in carrying out this vast project should be the humiliation of Austria. Early in the year 1800, therefore, he began secretly to collect an army which he proposed to direct against the Austrian troops, which were besieging the French in Genoa. Instead of marching straight into Italy, as would have been

most natural, the First Consul resolved to take the Austrian forces in the rear. Like the famous Carthaginian, Hannibal (§ 133), Bonaparte led his troops over the Alpine pass of the Great St. Bernard, dragging his cannon in the trunks of trees which had been hollowed out for the purpose. He arrived safely in Milan on the second of June to the utter astonishment of the Austrians, who were taken completely by surprise.

592. Battle of Marengo (June, 1800). Bonaparte defeated the Austrians in the famous battle of Marengo (June 14), and added one more to the list of his great military successes. A truce was signed next day; and the Austrians retreated eastward, leaving Bonaparte to restore French influence in northern Italy. The districts that he had "freed" had to support his army, and the reëstablished Cisalpine Republic was forced to pay a monthly tax of two million francs.

593. General Pacification (1801–1802). A second victory gained by the French in December of the same year brought Austria to terms, and she agreed to conclude a separate peace with the French Republic. This was the beginning of a general pacification. During the year 1801–1802 treaties were signed with all the powers with which France had been at war, even with England, who had not laid down her arms since war was first declared in 1793.

594. Extension of French Influence. These treaties greatly increased the power of France in Europe. In the treaty signed by Austria at Lunéville in February, 1801, the Emperor agreed, on his own part and on the part of the Holy Roman Empire, that the French Republic should thereafter possess in full sovereignty those territories lying on the west bank of the Rhine which had belonged to the Holy Roman Empire, and that thereafter the Rhine should form the boundary of France from the point where it left Switzerland to where it flowed into Dutch territory. In addition France received back the Austrian Netherlands (lost during Bonaparte's absence in Egypt), and later Piedmont was added to her territory. Holland, which had become the Batavian Republic, with the Italian (originally the



NAPOLEON CROSSING THE ST. BERNARD

Cisalpine) Republic, were under French control and contributed money and troops for the forwarding of French interests.

595. Bonaparte restores Order in France. For the first time in ten years France was, for the moment, at peace with all her enemies. The First Consul now turned his attention to France herself, which the Reign of Terror and the incompetent government of the Directory had left in a sad plight.[1] The finances of the country were in a terrible condition. These the First Consul adjusted with great skill. By getting rid of the worthless paper money, by careful collection of taxes, and by strict economy he quickly restored the national credit and then established the Bank of France.

596. Adjustment of Relations with the Church: the Concordat of 1801. Bonaparte next set about adjusting the great problem of the nonjuring clergy, who were still under suspicion for refusing to sanction the Civil Constitution of the Clergy. All imprisoned priests were freed on promising not to oppose the constitution. Their churches were given back to them, and the distinction between "nonjuring" and "constitutional" clergymen was obliterated. Sunday, which had been abolished by the republican calendar, was once more observed; and all the revolutionary holidays, except July 14 (the anniversary of the fall of the Bastille) and the first day of the republican year, were done away with. A formal treaty with the Pope, the Concordat of 1801, was concluded, which recognized the Pope as the head of the Church. It is noteworthy, however, that Bonaparte did not restore to the Church its ancient possessions and that he reserved to himself the right to appoint the bishops, as the former kings had done.

While the Pope invested them with their offices, the salaries of the clergy were to be paid by the State. This agreement, which really made the Church in France a branch of the government, remained in force until 1905 (§ 752).

[1] The roads were dilapidated and the harbors filled with sand; taxes were unpaid, robbery prevailed, and there was a general decline in industry. The lace, paper, and linen industries were as good as destroyed.

597. Emigrant Nobles permitted to Return. As for the emigrant nobles, Bonaparte decreed that no more names should be added to the lists. The striking of names from the list and the return of confiscated lands that had not already been sold he made favors to be granted by himself. Parents and relatives of emigrants were no longer to be regarded as incapable of holding public offices. In April, 1802, a general amnesty was granted, and no less than forty thousand families returned to France.

598. Organization of the Government: the Code Napoléon. Bonaparte reorganized the administration of the government so that all its branches were directly under his control. All officials were appointed by him or by his chosen representatives. In this way he could keep his eye on every detail of the government and see that his decrees and reforms were speedily carried out.

The heterogeneous laws of the old régime had been much modified by the legislation of the successive assemblies. All this needed a final revision, and Bonaparte appointed a commission to undertake this great task. Their draft of the new code was discussed in the Council of State, and the First Consul had many suggestions to make. The resulting codification of the civil law—the *Code Napoléon*—is still used today, not only in France but also, with some modifications, in Rhenish Bavaria, Baden, Holland, Belgium, Italy, and even in the state of Louisiana.

599. Old Habits Resumed. There was a gradual reaction from the fantastic innovations of the Reign of Terror. The old titles of address, "Monsieur" and "Madame," were again used instead of the revolutionary "Citizen." Streets which had been rebaptized with republican names resumed their former ones. Old titles of nobility were revived, and something very like a royal court began to develop at the Palace of the Tuileries; for, except in name, Bonaparte was already a king, and his wife, Josephine, a queen.

600. Bonaparte becomes Emperor Napoleon I. Bonaparte had now achieved his goal: he had become indispensable to the French. He had overcome their foreign enemies and extended

the boundaries and influence of France throughout Europe. Moreover, he had brought prosperity to an utterly confused and demoralized nation. The two privileged orders, once so powerful,—the clergy and the nobility,—had fared badly during the Republic, but Bonaparte won their support by his wise measures. At the same time, the business people in country and town were much encouraged by the improvement which came as a result of his reforms in money matters.

In 1802 Napoleon was appointed Consul for life, with the right to choose his successor. But this did not satisfy his insatiable ambition. He longed to be a monarch in name as well as in fact. He believed heartily in kingship, with its palaces, ermine robes, and gay courtiers. A plot to restore the old Bourbon line gave him an excuse for secretly urging that he be made emperor. France might, he argued, be replunged into civil war as long as there was any chance of overthrowing the government. He declared that the only safety for a great nation lay in hereditary power "which can alone assure a continuous political life which may endure for generations, even for centuries." The French Senate was induced to ask him (May, 1804) to accept the title of "Emperor of the French," which he was to hand down to his children or adopted heirs.

December 2, 1804, General Bonaparte was crowned, in the Cathedral of Notre Dame, as Napoleon I, emperor of the French. The Pope consented to grace the occasion, but the new monarch seized the golden laurel chaplet before the Pope could take it up, and placed it on his own head, since he wished the world to understand that he owed the crown not to the head of the Church but to his own sagacity and military genius.

A royal court was reëstablished in the Tuileries, and Ségur, an emigrant noble, and Madame de Campan—one of Marie Antoinette's ladies-in-waiting, who had been earning an honest livelihood by conducting a girls' school—were called in to show the new courtiers how to deport themselves according to the rules of etiquette which had prevailed before the red cap of liberty had come into fashion. A new nobility was established

General Bonaparte

to take the place of that abolished by the first National Assembly in 1790: Bonaparte's uncle was made Grand Almoner; Talleyrand, Lord High Chamberlain; General Duroc, High Constable; and fourteen of the most important generals were exalted to the rank of Marshal of France. The stanch republicans, who had believed that the court pageantry of the *old régime* had gone to stay, were either disgusted or amused, according to their temperaments.

III. Napoleon aspires to be Master of Europe

601. Napoleon's Boundless Ambition. It might be supposed that the most romantic dreams of this young general had been realized when, in a few years, he had risen from an obscure Corsican adventurer to be the ruler of the French empire. But Napoleon's ambition knew no bounds. Hardly had he become monarch of France than he aspired to be master of Europe. "There will be no rest in Europe," he said in 1804, "until it is under a single chief—an emperor who shall have kings for officers, who shall distribute kingdoms to his lieutenants." This was the ideal which he now found himself, by means of war and diplomacy, able to carry out with marvelous exactness. "I shall put up with peace," he said, "as long as our neighbors can maintain it, but I shall regard it as an advantage if they force me to take up my arms again before they rust."

602. England's Opposition to Napoleon. There was every reason, therefore, why the peace with England (concluded at Amiens in March, 1802) should be speedily broken. The obvious intention of Napoleon to bring as much of Europe under his control as he could, and the imposition of high duties on English goods in those territories that he already controlled, filled the English people with apprehension. Although they longed for peace, peace appeared to them only to offer an opportunity to the Corsican usurper to ruin England by a continuous war upon her commerce. This was the secret of England's persistence. All the other European powers concluded

peace with Napoleon at some time during his reign. England alone did not lay down her arms a second time until the emperor of the French was a prisoner.

603. Renewal of War with England. In 1803 war was accordingly renewed between France and England.[1] Napoleon declared the whole coast of western Europe from Holland to southern Italy blockaded against all English ships. He collected an army at Boulogne, just across the Channel from England, which alarmed the English, who feared lest he might succeed in invading their country. He did not make the attempt, however, for, owing to the usual roughness of the English Channel, the transportation of a large body of troops on flatboats would have been very hazardous.

604. The War of 1805 and its Results. Meanwhile, urged by the English, a number of the European states—including this time Russia as well as England and Austria—had joined in a great coalition to put an end to Napoleon's power. In August, 1805, Napoleon decided to turn his army eastward and give up the plan for invading the British Isles. He had at least succeeded in terrifying England. One of the Austrian commanders exhibited the most surprising incapacity in allowing himself to be shut up in Ulm, where he was forced to surrender with all his troops (October 20). Napoleon then marched down the Danube with little opposition, and before the middle of November the French troops were in possession of Vienna. Napoleon thereupon led his forces north to meet the allied armies of Austria and Russia; these he defeated, on December 2, in the terrible winter battle of Austerlitz. Russia then withdrew for a time and signed an armistice; and Austria was obliged to submit to a humiliating peace—the Treaty of Pressburg. By this

[1] At this time an event of great importance for the United States took place. The vast Louisiana territory, which France had ceded to Spain at the end of the Seven Years' War, forty years before (§ 479), had been returned to France when the peace of 1801 was concluded. Now Napoleon, finding himself in need of funds, decided to sell the region to the United States. In this way an extensive region was taken away from European control and later developed into a series of states forming an essential part of the great American Republic.

treaty Austria ceded various territories in Italy to Napoleon and consented to permit his friends the rulers of Bavaria and Württemberg to assume the title of "King."

605. Effects of Napoleon's Victories on Central Europe. This was the third time that Austria had been forced to hand over portions of her realms to the victorious French leader. We shall find that this dismemberment of the Holy Roman Empire had momentous consequences in the reconstruction of central Europe. By the Treaty of Lunéville, 1801 (§ 594), the west bank of the Rhine had been ceded to France. As a consequence of this cession various princes and states of the Empire found themselves dispossessed, either wholly or in part, of their lands. The Empire bound itself to furnish the hereditary princes who had lost possessions on the west bank of the Rhine with "an indemnity within the Empire." This proved a difficult matter, for there was no unoccupied land to give the dispossessed princes. There were, however, two classes of states in the Empire that at least did not belong to *hereditary* princes; namely, the ecclesiastical states and the free towns. As the churchmen, —archbishop, bishops, and abbots,—who ruled over the ecclesiastical states, were forbidden by the rules of the Church to marry, they could of course have no lawful heirs. Should an ecclesiastical ruler be deprived of his lands he might therefore be indemnified by a pension for life without injustice to any heirs. As for the towns, once so prosperous and important, they now seemed scarcely worth considering to the more powerful rulers of Germany.

606. Decree redistributing German Territory (1803). So it came about that the diet of the Holy Roman Empire in 1803 issued a decree (called *Reichsdeputationshauptschluss*!) transferring all the ecclesiastical states, except the electorate of Mainz, to lay, or hereditary, princes. Of the forty-eight imperial cities only six were left. The ruler of Bavaria received, for example, the bishoprics of Würzburg, Bamberg, Augsburg, Freising, and a number of cities. Baden received the bishoprics of Constance, Basel, Speyer, etc. The knights who had lost their

little estates on the west bank were not repaid, and those on the east bank were deprived of their political rights and soon saw their land absorbed by the several states within whose boundaries they lay.

607. Partial Unification of Germany. The final distribution was preceded by a bitter and undignified scramble among the princes for additional bits of territory. All turned to Paris for favors, since Bonaparte, not the German diet, was really the arbiter in the matter. This amalgamation, however, was the beginning of modern Germany; for without the consolidation of the hundreds of practically independent little states into a few well-organized monarchies, such a union as the later German Empire would have been impossible. Hence, strangely enough, Germany owes to a French ruler, and not to any of its emperors or to Prussia, the first measures which resulted in the creation of the German Empire.

608. Dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire (1806). It must not be supposed that Napoleon had any desire to unify Germany; he merely wished to maintain a certain number of independent states, or groups of states, which he could conveniently control. He therefore provided, in the Treaty of Pressburg, that the newly created sovereigns should enjoy the "plenitude of sovereignty," precisely as did the rulers of Austria and Prussia.

This treaty, by explicitly declaring several of the most important of the German states altogether independent of the Emperor, rendered the further existence of the Holy Roman Empire impossible. The Emperor, Francis II, accordingly abdicated August 6, 1806. In this way Napoleon's conquests resulted in putting an end to a line of rulers who had, for well-nigh eighteen centuries, proudly maintained that they were the successors of Augustus, the first Roman Emperor (§§ 212, 226).

609. Francis II assumes the Title of "Emperor of Austria." Francis II did not, however, cease to be an "emperor." Shortly after the First Consul had received that title, Francis adopted the title "Emperor of Austria," to designate him as the ruler of

all the possessions of his house.[1] Hitherto, aside from being ruler of the Holy Roman Empire, he had been officially known as King of Hungary, Bohemia, Dalmatia, Croatia, Galicia, and Lodomeria; Duke of Lorraine, Venice, Salzburg, etc.; Grand Duke of Transylvania; Margrave of Moravia; etc.

610. The Confederation of the Rhine. Meanwhile Napoleon had organized a union of the *southern* German states, called the Confederation of the Rhine, and had assumed its headship as "Protector." This he had done, he assured Europe, "in the dearest interests of his people and of his neighbors," adding the pious hope that the French armies had crossed the Rhine for the last time, and that the people of Germany would witness no longer, "except in the annals of the past, the horrible pictures of disorder, devastation, and slaughter that war invariably brings with it." In reality, however, Napoleon was enlarging his empire by erecting dependent states east of the Rhine.

FRANCIS I OF AUSTRIA[1]

Immediately after the battle of Austerlitz Napoleon proclaimed that the king of Naples, who had allied himself with the English, had ceased to reign, and French generals were ordered to occupy Naples. In March, 1806, he made his brother Joseph king of Naples and Sicily, his brother Louis king of Holland, and his brother-in-law, Murat, duke of Cleves and Berg. These states and those of his German allies formed a part of what he called "the real French empire."

[1] Thus Francis II of the Holy Roman Empire became Francis I of Austria.

611. Prussia forced into War with France. One of the most important of the continental states had taken no part as yet in the opposition to the extension of Napoleon's sway. Prussia, the first power to conclude peace with the new French Republic in 1795, had since that time maintained a strict neutrality.

Napoleon's conduct toward Prussia was most insolent. After setting her at enmity with England, by promising that she should have Hanover (§ 760), he unblushingly offered to restore the electorate to the English king. His insults now began to arouse the national spirit in Prussia, and the reluctant Frederick William III was forced by the party in favor of war to break with Napoleon.

612. Campaign of Jena (1806). Prussia's army was, however, as has been well said, "only that of Frederick the Great grown twenty years older." One of Frederick's generals, the aged duke of Brunswick, who had issued the famous manifesto in 1792 (§ 560), was its leader. A signal defeat, near Jena (October 14, 1806), put Prussia completely in the hands of her enemy. This one disaster produced complete demoralization throughout the country. Fortresses were surrendered without resistance, and the king fled to the uttermost parts of his realm on the Russian boundary.

613. Treaties of Tilsit (1807). Napoleon now led his army into Poland, where he spent the winter in operations against Russia. He closed an arduous campaign by a brilliant victory at Friedland (June 14, 1807), which was followed by the treaties of Tilsit with Russia and Prussia (July 7 and 9). Prussia was thoroughly defeated. Frederick William III lost all his possessions to the west of the Elbe and all that Prussia had gained in the second and third partitions of Poland. The Polish territory Napoleon made into a new subject monarchy called the grand duchy of Warsaw, and chose his friend the king of Saxony as its ruler. Out of the western lands of Prussia, which he later united with Hanover, he created the kingdom of Westphalia for his brother Jerome. Russia, on the other hand, was treated with marked consideration.

614. The Continental Blockade. Napoleon's most persevering enemy, England, still remained unconquered and inaccessible. Just as Napoleon was undertaking his successful campaign against Austria in 1805, Nelson had annihilated a second French fleet in the renowned naval engagement of Trafalgar, off the coast of Spain. It seemed more than ever necessary to Napoleon, therefore, to ruin England commercially and industrially, since there was obviously no likelihood of subduing her by arms.

NELSON'S COLUMN, TRAFALGAR SQUARE, LONDON

The English regard Nelson as the man who safeguarded their liberty by the victories of the fleet. Nelson was killed at Trafalgar and buried with great ceremony in the crypt of St. Paul's under the very center of the dome. Some years later Trafalgar Square was laid out at the point where the street leading to the Parliament buildings joins a chief business street,—the Strand,—and a gigantic column to Nelson was erected, surmounted by a statue of the admiral. In the background one can see the buildings of the National Gallery

615. The Berlin Decree and the "Paper" Blockade. In May, 1806, England had declared the coast from the Elbe to Brest to be blockaded. Napoleon replied to this with the Berlin Decree (November 21, 1806), in which he proclaimed it outrageous on the part of Great Britain to declare great stretches of coast in a state of blockade which her whole fleet would be unable to enforce. He retaliated with a "paper"[1] blockade of the British Isles, which forbade all commerce with them. Letters or pack-

[1] That is, a blockade which includes too long a stretch of coast to permit the ships at the disposal of the power proclaiming the blockade really to enforce it.

ages directed to England or to an Englishman or written in the English language were not to be permitted to pass through the mails in the countries he controlled. Every English subject in countries occupied by French troops or in the territory of Napoleon's allies was to be regarded as a prisoner of war and his property as a lawful prize. All trade in English goods was forbidden.

A year later England established a similar paper blockade of the ports of the French empire and its allies, but permitted the ships of neutral powers to proceed, provided that they touched at an English port, secured a license from the English government, and paid a heavy export duty. Napoleon promptly declared all ships that submitted to these humiliating regulations to be lawful prizes of French privateers.

616. Plight of the United States. The ships of the United States were at this time the most numerous and important of the neutral vessels carrying on the world's trade, and a very hard time they had between the restrictions of Great Britain and the decrees issued by Napoleon. An American newspaper calculated that if an American ship consented to meet England's regulations and pay all the charges she imposed for licenses and dues, the amount to be paid for a single voyage, let us say from Baltimore to Holland and back, would amount to thirty thousand dollars—a large sum in those days.

Exasperated by the situation, Congress, at the suggestion of President Jefferson, passed an embargo act (December, 1807) which forbade vessels to leave port. It was hoped that this would prevent the further loss of American ships and would at the same time so interfere with the supplies of England and France that it would bring them to terms; but the only result was the destruction of the previously flourishing business of the Atlantic coast towns, especially in New England. Early in 1809 Congress decided to permit trade once more with European nations, except England and France; but conditions remained very bad, and the United States, for this and other reasons, finally drifted into war with Great Britain in 1812.

617. The Question of the Freedom of the Seas. It is very interesting to compare the situation of the United States during the Napoleonic wars with that in which she was placed when Germany and England resorted to similar blockades during the World War. In both cases the United States was drawn into the conflict. America can never be indifferent to European struggles which endanger the lives of passengers and crews and threaten the destruction of cargoes. All warring nations are likely to disregard the rights of neutrals, and it was such disregard on Germany's part which, among other things, finally led Congress, in 1917, to recognize that a state of war existed between Germany and the United States.

618. Napoleon's Effort to make Europe Independent Economically. Napoleon tried to render Europe permanently independent of the colonial productions brought from English colonies and by English ships. He encouraged the substitution of chicory for coffee, the cultivation of the sugar beet, and the discovery of new dyes to replace those coming from the tropics. But the distress caused by the disturbance in trade produced great discontent, especially in Russia; it rendered the domination of Napoleon more and more distasteful and finally contributed to his downfall.

IV. Napoleon at the Height of his Power (1810–1812)

619. Public Improvements. France owed much to Napoleon, for he had restored order and guaranteed many of the beneficent achievements of the Revolution of 1789. His boundless ambition was, it is true, sapping her strength by forcing younger and younger men into his armies in order to build up the vast international federation of which he dreamed. But his victories and the commanding position to which he had raised France could not but fill the nation with pride.

He sought to gain popular approval by great public improvements. He built marvelous roads across the Alps and along

the Rhine, which still fill the traveler with admiration. He beautified Paris by opening up wide streets and quays and constructing magnificent bridges and triumphal arches that kept fresh in the people's minds the recollection of his victories. By these means he gradually converted a medieval town into the most beautiful of modern capitals.

620. Napoleon's Methods of maintaining his Power: Supervision of Education. In order to be sure that the young people were brought up to venerate his name and support his government, Napoleon completely reorganized the schools and colleges of France. These he consolidated into a single "university." This was not a university in the usual sense of the word, but included all the instruction from that of the elementary grades to the most advanced. The teaching was watched by an inspector, who permitted only what Napoleon would have approved. One of the schoolbooks, the *Imperial Catechism*, taught the children to say: "Christians owe to the princes who govern them, and we in particular owe to Napoleon I, our emperor, love, respect, obedience, fidelity, military service, and the taxes levied for the preservation and defense of the empire and of his throne. We also owe him fervent prayers for his safety and for the spiritual and temporal prosperity of the State."

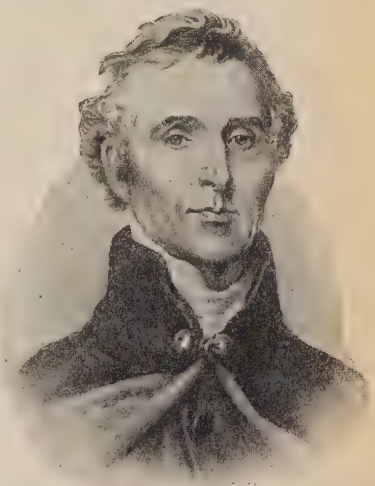
621. System of Rewards and Honors. Napoleon not only created a new nobility, but he tried to win the support of noted people by making them members of an honorary society called the Legion of Honor. These "princes," as well as high officials of the State, were given a substantial annual income. The army was not forgotten, for Napoleon felt that his soldiers were his chief support. The incomes of his marshals were enormous, while soldiers who performed brave deeds were rewarded with the decoration of the Legion of Honor.

622. Napoleon's Growing Despotism. As time went on Napoleon became more and more despotic. No less than thirty-five hundred prisoners of state were arrested at his command for disapproving of the government in some way or other. No grievance was too petty to attract the attention of the emperor's

jealous eye. Even plays were forbidden which the police thought might rouse any criticism or discontent with his rule.

623. The Question of Spain. Napoleon was never satisfied with his achievements or with his glory. After the peace of Tilsit he decided to turn his attention to the Spanish peninsula and bring this also under his control.

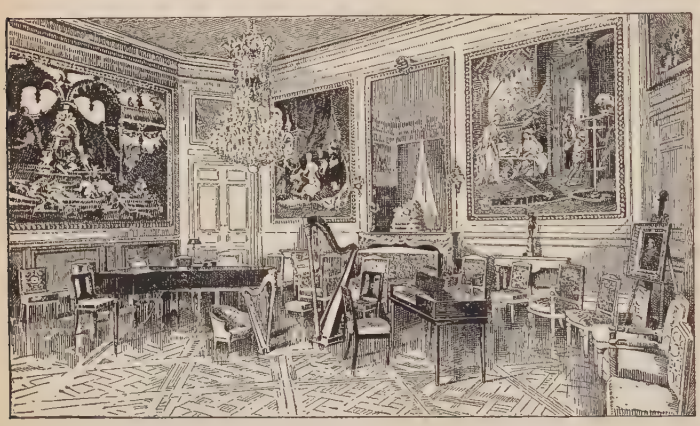
Portugal was too friendly to the English to be allowed to remain unmolested; and Spain, owing to serious dissensions in the royal family, seemed an easy prey. In the spring of 1808 Napoleon induced both the king and the crown prince of Spain to meet him at Bayonne. Here he was able to persuade or force both of them to surrender their rights to the throne, and on June 6 he appointed his brother Joseph king of Spain. The Spanish, however, rebelled against this arrangement, and with the help of English troops under Wellington, who had landed in Portugal, defeated the French armies.



Duke of Wellington

In November the French emperor himself led a magnificent army into Spain—two hundred thousand strong. The Spanish troops, perhaps one hundred thousand in number, were, on the other hand, ill clad and inadequately equipped; what was worse, they were overconfident in view of their late victory. They were defeated, and Madrid surrendered on December 4. Napoleon immediately abolished the Inquisition, the feudal dues, the internal customs lines, and two thirds of the cloisters. This is the way in which the French Revolution went forth in arms to spread its principles throughout western Europe.

624. The Peninsular War. The next month Napoleon was back in Paris, as he saw that he had another war with Austria on his hands. He left Joseph on his insecure throne, after assuring the Spanish that God had given the French emperor the power and the will to overcome all obstacles. He was soon to discover, however, that these very Spaniards could maintain a persistent



MUSIC ROOM IN THE PALACE OF COMPIÈGNE

Napoleon used the various palaces erected by the previous rulers of France. That at Compiègne, fifty miles from Paris, was built by Louis XV. The smaller harp was made, it is said, for Napoleon's heir, the "King of Rome," as his father called him. However, when Napoleon abdicated in 1814, the boy was but three years old, and was carried off to Austria by his Austrian mother, Marie Louise. He was known by the Bonapartists as Napoleon II, but never ruled over France

warfare against which his best troops and most distinguished generals were powerless. With this aid the English army, under the Duke of Wellington, slowly but surely drove the French back over the Pyrenees. Napoleon's ultimate downfall was in no small measure due to this ill-advised "Peninsular War."

625. War with Austria (1809); Battle of Wagram. In April, 1809, Austria ventured to declare war once more on the "enemy of Europe," but this time she found no one to aid her. The great battle of Wagram, near Vienna (July 5–6), was, perhaps,

not so unmistakable a victory for the French as that of Austerlitz, but it forced Austria into just as humiliating a peace as that of Pressburg. Austria's object had been to destroy Napoleon's system of dependencies and "to restore to their rightful possessors all those lands belonging to them respectively before the Napoleonic usurpations." Instead of accomplishing this end, Austria was obliged to cede more territory to Napoleon and his allies, and he went on adding to his dependencies. Consequently, in 1810, France stretched from the confines of Naples to the Baltic. One might travel from Lübeck to Rome without leaving Napoleon's realms.

626. Napoleon marries a Hapsburg Princess. Napoleon was anxious to have an heir to whom he could transmit his vast dominions. As his first wife Josephine bore him no children, he decided to divorce her; and, after considering a Russian princess, he married the Archduchess Marie Louise, the daughter of the Austrian emperor and a grandniece of Marie Antoinette. In this way the former Corsican adventurer gained admission to one of the oldest and proudest of reigning families, the Hapsburgs. His new wife soon bore him a son, who was styled King of Rome.

V. Fall of Napoleon

627. Relations between Napoleon and Alexander I. Among the continental states Russia alone was entirely out of Napoleon's control. There were plenty of causes for misunderstanding between the ardent young Tsar Alexander I and Napoleon. Up to this time the agreement of Tilsit had been maintained. Napoleon was, however, secretly opposing Alexander's plans for adding the Danubian provinces and Finland to his possessions. Then the possibility of Napoleon's reëstablishing Poland as a national kingdom which might threaten Russia's interests was a constant source of apprehension to Alexander. By 1812 Napoleon believed himself to be in a condition to subdue this doubtful friend, who might at any moment become a dangerous enemy. Against the advice of his more farsighted counselors,

the emperor collected on the Russian frontier a vast army of six hundred thousand men, composed to a great extent of young recruits and the contingents furnished by his allies.

628. Napoleon's Campaign in Russia (1812). The story of the fearful Russian campaign which followed cannot be told here in detail. Napoleon had planned to take three years to conquer Russia, but he was led on by the desire to proclaim at least one victory before he closed the first season's campaign. The Russians simply retreated and led him far within a hostile and devastated country before they offered battle at Borodino (September 7). Napoleon won the battle, but his army was reduced to something over one hundred thousand men when he entered Moscow a week later. The town had been set on fire by the Russians before his arrival; he found his position untenable and had to retreat as winter came on. The cold, the want of food, and the harassing attacks of the people along the route made that retreat one of the most striking military tragedies on record. Napoleon regained Poland early in December with scarcely twenty thousand of the four hundred thousand with which he had started less than six months before.

629. Napoleon collects a New Army. Napoleon hastened back to Paris, where he freely misrepresented the true state of affairs, even declaring that the army was in a good condition up to the time that he turned it over to his brother-in-law in December. While the loss of men in the Russian campaign was enormous, just those few had naturally survived who would be most essential in the formation of a new army; namely, the officers. With their help Napoleon soon had a force of no less than six hundred thousand men with which to return to the attack. This contained one hundred and fifty thousand raw recruits who should not have been called into service until 1814, besides older men who had been hitherto exempted.

630. Social Conditions in Prussia before 1806. By the end of February, 1813, the timid Frederick William III had been induced by public sentiment in Prussia to break with his oppressor and join Russia. On March 17 he issued a famous address,

"To my People," in which he called upon them to assist him in restoring Prussia's former power and escaping from Napoleon's influence.

Up to the defeat of Jena, Prussia was far more backward in its social organization than France had been before 1789. The agricultural classes were serfs, who were bound to the land and compelled to work for the lord a certain part of each week without remuneration. The population was divided into strict social castes, and even the land was of three kinds. No noble could buy citizen land or peasant land; no citizen, noble or peasant land; no peasant, noble or citizen land.

631. Prussia undertakes Reforms. The overwhelming defeat of the Prussian army at Jena and the provisions of the Treaty of Tilsit, which reduced Prussia to territorial insignificance, forced the leaders of that old-fashioned country to consider whether its weakness were not partly due to its medieval institutions. Neither the king nor his usual advisers were ready for thoroughgoing reform; but there were some more progressive spirits, among whom Baron vom Stein and Prince Hardenberg were conspicuous, who induced the government to alter the old system.

The first step was taken in October, 1807, when a royal decree was issued which declared its purpose to be nothing less than "to remove every obstacle that has hitherto prevented the individual from attaining such a degree of prosperity as he is capable of reaching." Serfdom was abolished, and the old class system done away with, so that anyone, regardless of social rank, was legally free to purchase and hold real estate no matter to whom it had formerly belonged.

632. The Prussian *Junkers*. It is important to note that while serfs had practically disappeared in England and France hundreds of years earlier, it was not until the opening of the nineteenth century, and then under the stress of dire calamity, that Prussia sufficiently modernized herself to abolish the medieval manor and free the peasants, who until then had been bound to the soil and sold with it. But the manorial lords, the so-

called *Junkers*, remained rich and influential, and have continued down to this day, with their ancient notions of kingship by the grace of God and military prowess, to exercise a fatal influence on the Prussian government. Moreover, the mass of the Prussian people seem to retain something of their old servile attitude toward their masters.

633. Origin of the Modern Prussian Army. The old army of Frederick the Great had been completely discredited, and a few days after the signing of the Treaty of Tilsit a commission for military reorganization was appointed. The object of the reformers was to introduce universal military service. Napoleon had permitted Prussia to maintain only a small force of not more than forty-two thousand men; but the reformers arranged that this army should be continually recruited by new men, while those who had had some training should retire and form a reserve. In this way, in spite of Napoleon's restrictions on the size of the regular Prussian army, there were before long as many as a hundred and fifty thousand men sufficiently trained to fight when the opportunity should come. *This system was later adopted by other European states and was the basis of the great armies of the Continent at the outbreak of the World War in 1914.*

634. Fichte's Addresses (1807–1808). While serfdom and the old system of social classes were being abolished in Prussia, attempts were being made to rouse the national spirit of the Germans and prepare them to fight against their French conquerors. A leader in this movement was the well-known philosopher Fichte. He arranged a course of public addresses in Berlin, just after the defeat at Jena, in which he told his auditors, with impressive warmth and eloquence, that the Germans were the one really superior people in the whole world. All other nations were degraded and had, he was confident, seen their best days; but the future belonged to the Germans, who would in due time, owing to their supreme natural gifts, come into their own and be recognized as the leaders of the world. The German language was, he claimed, infinitely stronger than

NAPOLEON MEDITATING

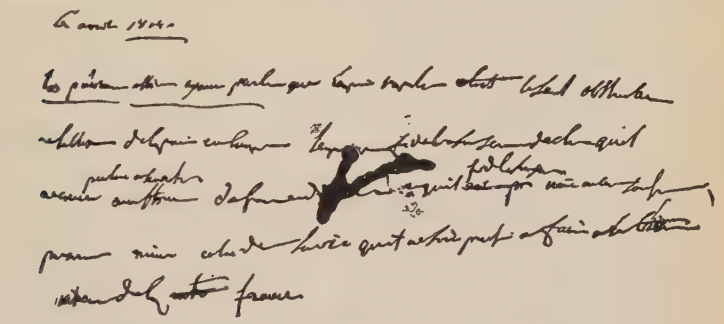
the feeble speech of the French and Italians, borrowed from ancient Latin. Some later German writers followed Fichte's lead in cultivating the Germans' self-esteem and their contempt for every other race.

635. Battle of Leipzig (October, 1813). Napoleon had to face now not only the kings and the cabinets of Europe and the regular armies that they directed, but a people who were being organized to defend their country. The campaign which followed is known in Germany as the War of Liberation. Napoleon's soldiers were, however, still triumphant for a time. He gained his last great victory—the battle of Dresden—August 26–27. Finding that the allied armies of the Russians, Prussians, and Austrians, which had at last learned the necessity of coöperating against their powerful common enemy, were preparing to cut him off from France, he retreated early in October and was totally defeated in the tremendous "Battle of the Nations," as it has since been called, in the environs of Leipzig (October 16–19).

636. Break-up of Napoleon's Empire. As the defeated emperor crossed the Rhine with the remnants of his army the whole basis of his power in Germany and Holland collapsed. The members of the Confederation of the Rhine joined the allies. Jerome Bonaparte fled from his kingdom of Westphalia, and the Dutch drove the French officials from Holland. During the year 1813 the Spanish, with the aid of the English under Wellington, had practically cleared their country of the French intruders.

637. Napoleon's Abdication (April, 1814). In spite of these disasters Napoleon refused the propositions of peace made on condition that he would content himself henceforth with his dominion over France. The allies consequently marched into France, and the almost superhuman activity of the hard-pressed emperor could not prevent their occupation of Paris (March 31, 1814). Napoleon was forced to abdicate and renounce all rights to the throne for himself and his family. He was permitted to retain his title of "Emperor" and was granted full sovereignty

over the tiny island of Elba in the Mediterranean, where he was really a prisoner of the allies. The allies immediately reinstated the Bourbon dynasty on the throne of France. Louis XVI's brother, the count of Provence, was recalled from England, where he had been living, and was given the title of "Louis XVIII."[1] The boundaries of France were fixed as they had been at the beginning of 1792. A great congress of the victorious powers were summoned to meet at Vienna to settle the many problems of readjustment which now arose. Accordingly



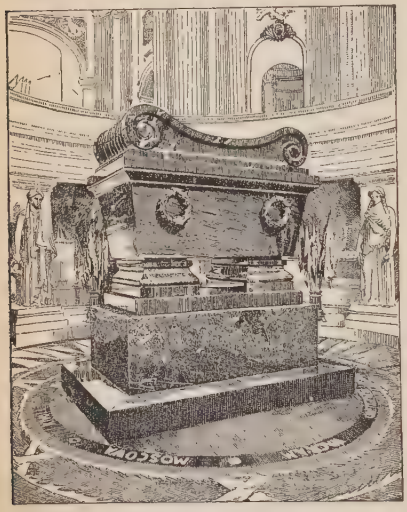
THE ABDICATION OF NAPOLEON—THE DOCUMENT IN HIS OWN HANDWRITING

there gathered in September a notable assembly of rulers and statesmen, who set about to redistribute the realms Napoleon had ruled. Although the allies were at one in their hostility to Napoleon, they immediately began to disagree on how Europe should be reconstructed.

638. Return of Napoleon. While the Congress was still in session Napoleon, encouraged by the unpopularity of the Bourbon king and the dissensions among the powers, succeeded in escaping from his little kingdom and with twelve hundred men landed in France. With an army of enthusiastic followers, who joined him on the way, he reached Paris, March 1, 1815. Napo-

[1] The son of Louis XVI had been imprisoned and maltreated by the terrorists. He died in 1795, while still a boy, but nevertheless he takes his place in the line of French kings as Louis XVII.

leon counted on the loyalty of the French people and trusted that the divisions between the nations would prevent a combined attack on him; but the allies quickly forgot their rivalry in the face of common danger and joined to overthrow once more "the destroyer of the world's peace."



Tomb of Napoleon

Napoleon died at St. Helena in 1821. The body was brought to Paris in 1840 and placed with great military splendor in this sarcophagus of reddish-brown granite, which was hewn in Finland as a solid block, weighing sixty-seven tons. Around it in the pavement are inscribed the names of Napoleon's greatest victories, while some sixty captured banners stand beside colossal statues of victory. The whole tomb is under the gilded dome of the church of the old soldiers' hospital, known as the Invalides, which rises one hundred and sixty-one feet above it

639. Defeat of Napoleon. The Duke of Wellington assembled an army of the one hundred thousand British, Germans, and Dutch in the Netherlands; and Blücher, with another large army of Prussians, was ready to assist him. The Austrians also had a considerable force near the Rhine. In June, 1815, Napoleon collected such an army as he could, and with his old daring marched to the Belgian frontier, hoping to divide his enemies and defeat them separately. Although he managed at first to drive back the Prussians, he was overcome by Wellington's forces at Waterloo and completely routed by Blücher's troops, who arrived to assist the British general. There was now no hope for Napoleon, for the allies had combined to send indefinite numbers into the field against him. Hopelessly defeated at last, the mighty conqueror had come to the end of his career.

Banished to St. Helena, a lonely island in the south Atlantic, Napoleon spent his few remaining years writing his *Memoirs*, in which he sought to justify his deeds and hand down to posterity the story of his achievements.

QUESTIONS

I. Tell something of the early life of Napoleon Bonaparte. What powers were at war with France when Bonaparte took command of the Italian army? What success did Bonaparte meet in Italy? Describe Bonaparte's character and ambitions. What were the chief sources of his power? What were Bonaparte's motives in going to Egypt?

II. How did Bonaparte become First Consul? What is the origin of the word "consul"? Why was Bonaparte popular? Describe Bonaparte's second expedition to Italy and its results. How did Bonaparte restore order in France? How did Bonaparte adjust the relations of France to the Church? What did he do about the runaway nobles? What was the *Code Napoléon*? Why did Bonaparte want to be called Napoleon I?

III. Why did Napoleon believe that he would be constantly involved in war? How did Louisiana come into the possession of the United States? What was the extent of French territory when war was renewed in 1803? What were the sources of Napoleon's dislike for England? Describe the general nature of the Holy Roman Empire. Had the emperors tried in previous centuries to strengthen Germany? What were the circumstances that led to the consolidation of Germany in 1803? What is meant by "secularization"? Give some examples. Describe the final dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire. How did Prussia become involved in war with France in 1806, and what were the results? What was the continental blockade? What was the position of the United States? What difficulties do neutral nations have during a war of naval powers? How did Napoleon hope to make the Continent independent of English commerce?

IV. What did Napoleon do for Paris? What was the result of Napoleon's attempt to add Spain to his empire? How were the French boundaries extended after the war with Austria in 1809? Why did Napoleon marry an Austrian princess?

V. Why did Napoleon undertake his Russian expedition? What reforms were carried through in Prussia as a result of her defeat by Napoleon? Tell something of the campaign of 1813. Why is the battle of Leipzig called the "Battle of the Nations"? What was the end of Napoleon's career in Europe? What does Europe owe to Napoleon?

BOOK VI. A CENTURY OF PROGRESS 1814–1914

CHAPTER XXX

EUROPE AFTER THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

I. Reconstruction of Europe by the Congress of Vienna

640. Decisions of the Congress of Vienna. There are few more important chapters in the political history of Europe than the reconstruction of the map which was arranged by that impressive assembly of monarchs, princes, and statesmen who met at the international Congress of Vienna. They had no idea of establishing things as they had been before the Napoleonic Period, for the reason that Austria, Russia, and Prussia all had schemes for their own advantage which interfered with so simple an arrangement.

The allies quickly agreed that Holland should become a hereditary kingdom under the House of Orange, which had long played so conspicuous a rôle in the history of the Dutch Republic (§§ 363 ff.). In order that Holland might be the better able to check any new encroachments on the part of France, she was given the former Austrian Netherlands. Switzerland was declared independent, as were all the small Italian states which had existed prior to the changes made by Napoleon, except the ancient republics of Venice and Genoa, neither of which was restored. Genoa was given to the king of Sardinia; Venetia was given to Austria, as an indemnity for her losses in the Netherlands. Austria also recovered her former territory of Milan

THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

and became, by reason of her control of northern Italy, a powerful factor in determining the policy of the whole Italian peninsula. As to Germany, no one desired to undo the great work of 1803 (§§ 606 ff.) and restore the old anarchy. The former members of the Rhine Confederation were bent upon maintaining the "sovereignty" Napoleon had secured for them; consequently the allies determined that the several states of Germany should be independent, but "united in a federal union."

641. Dispute over Polish Territory and Saxony. So far all was tolerably harmonious. Nevertheless, serious differences of opinion developed at the congress, which nearly brought on war among the allies themselves and also encouraged Napoleon's return from Elba. These concerned the disposition of the Polish territory that Napoleon had converted into the grand duchy of Warsaw. Prussia agreed with Russia that the territory should remain a separate state under the supremacy of the Tsars. Prussia was then to be indemnified for her losses in Poland by annexing the lands of the king of Saxony, who, it was argued, merited this punishment for remaining faithful to Napoleon after the rest of Germany had deserted him.

642. Sagacity of Talleyrand. Austria and England, on the other hand, were bitterly opposed to this arrangement. They approved neither of dispossessing the king of Saxony nor of extending the Tsar's influence westward by giving him Poland. The great diplomatist Talleyrand, who represented Louis XVIII, the new French king, at the congress, now saw his chance. The allies had resolved to treat France as a black sheep and permit the other four great powers to arrange matters to suit themselves. But they were now hopelessly at odds, and Austria and England found France a welcome ally in their opposition to the Northern powers. So in this way France, which had been looked upon as a dangerous enemy for the last quarter of a century, was received back into the family of nations.

643. The Compromise. A compromise was at last reached. The Tsar, Alexander, was allowed to create a kingdom of Poland out of the grand duchy of Warsaw, but only half of the

possessions of the king of Saxony were ceded to Prussia. As a further indemnity to Prussia, Frederick William III was given important provinces on both banks of the Rhine, so that the territory of the kingdom of Prussia reached all the way to the boundaries of France (Map 18). The power of Prussia was thus greatly increased in western Germany. The great importance of this arrangement we shall see later when we come to trace the development of the German Empire.[1]

644. Tendency to restore the Old Régime. Napoleon, in spite of all his despotism, was a son of the Revolution and had no sympathy with the ancient evils that it had done away with. The people of the countries that had come under his influence had shared some of the great reforms of the French Revolution; nevertheless, the restored monarchs in many of the smaller European states proceeded to reëstablish the ancient feudal injustices and to treat their subjects as if there had been no French Revolution and no such man as Napoleon.

In order to understand the period following the downfall of Napoleon we must realize that the statesmen who met together at Vienna were determined to restore peace in Europe and to promote their own national interests, which had been so impaired by Napoleon's ambitions. They therefore reinstated the monarchs whom they regarded as "legitimately" entitled to rule, and suppressed all attempts on the part of the people to gain any further measure of liberty. This they believed was the only way to bring order out of the chaos into which Europe had fallen.

645. Influence of Metternich. Austria had emerged from the disorder as the dominant power in Europe and for thirty years played the leading rôle in international affairs. From 1815 to 1848 those who wished to restore the conditions of the old régime were able, under the leadership of her astute minister Count Metternich, to oppose pretty successfully those who from

[1] In the new Prussian possessions on the Rhine great manufacturing towns grew up, including those in the Ruhr valley, which were occupied by the French in 1923 (Chapter XLII).

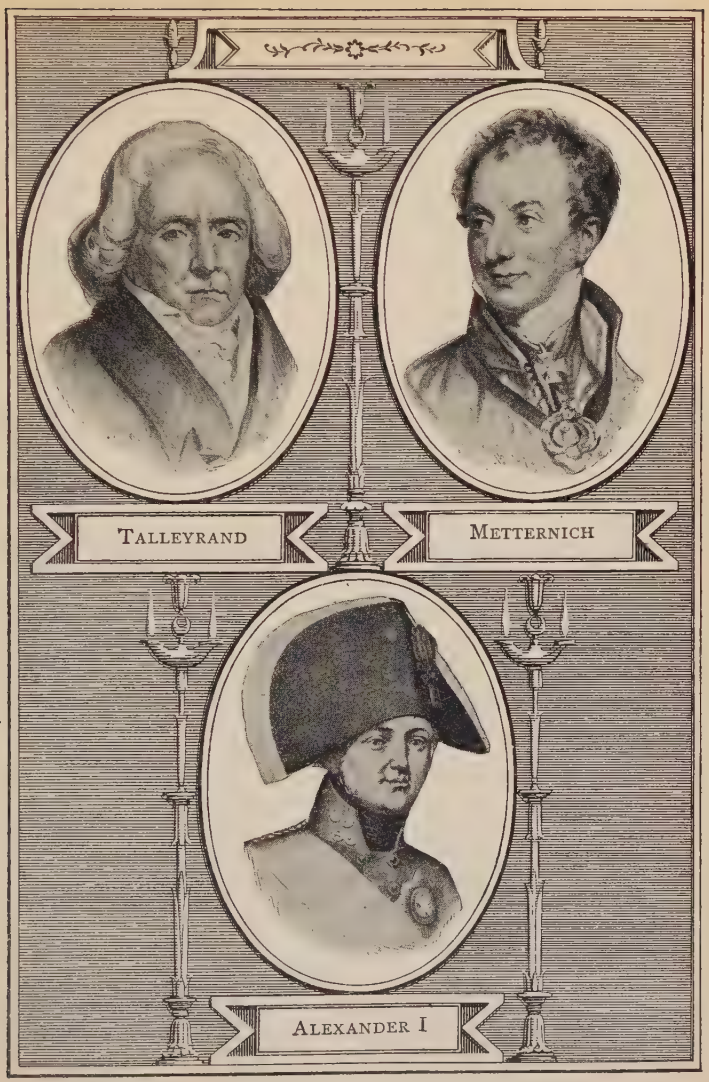
time to time attempted to secure for the people a greater control of the government. This did not mean, of course, that no progress was made during this long period in realizing the ideals of the liberal parties in the various European states, or that one man could block the advance of nations for a generation.

646. Various Kinds of Political Parties. We should at this point become familiar with a number of terms which are commonly used to describe the different ideas men have held as to the best kind of government. These are "reactionary," "conservative," "liberal," "radical," and "red." Thus, one hears a person referred to as a reactionary, a conservative, a liberal. In general, a reactionary is one who wishes to restore things as they were in the past and believes that on the whole "the old ways are the best." A conservative wishes to keep things as they are and is usually willing to err, if necessary, on the side of caution. A liberal is one who believes in reform.

During the nineteenth century the liberals were particularly anxious to secure constitutions limiting the powers of the rulers, and also to increase the number of people who were allowed to vote. Nowadays those who believe in discarding the present order entirely and inaugurating a new form of government are called radicals. Those who advocate a change of this kind by revolutionary rather than by peaceful means are often called reds.

It frequently happens that people are called reactionary or conservative who believe in progress, while many who have no idea of overturning everything or resorting to violence are branded as radical or red by timid persons who do not like their ideas. In this way a great deal of unfairness may arise from the fact that the various parties take very little trouble to understand what their opponents really stand for.

647. The "Holy Alliance" and the Quadruple Alliance. The statesmen who had arranged the map of Europe at the Congress of Vienna were, in the main, reactionaries; they had restored things largely as they had been before Napoleon had upset Europe. They were now faced with the practical question of



IMPORTANT MEMBERS OF THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

how to make permanent the peace which they claimed to have restored. Alexander I, who had become very religious, advocated the formation of a religious brotherhood of monarchs, which was given the name "Holy Alliance." This was accepted by the emperor of Austria and the king of Prussia, and published in September, 1815.

The members of the alliance regarded themselves as "delegates of Providence," ruling over various branches of the same family. Their Majesties, "in view of the great events which have taken place in Europe during the past three years, and especially in view of the benefits which it has pleased Divine Providence to shed upon those states whose governments have placed their confidence and sole hope in Him, have reached the profound conviction that it is essential to base the policy of the powers, in their mutual relations with one another, upon the sublime truths which are taught by the eternal religion of God our Savior." They declared "that the present act has for its only aim to manifest to the whole world their firm purpose to have no other rule in the administration of their states, and in their relations with other governments, than the precepts of this holy religion." Other European monarchs who should recognize the sacred principles of the alliance were cordially invited to become members.

The Tsar and the king of Prussia took the alliance seriously, but most of the other diplomats who had taken part in the scramble for territory at the Congress of Vienna regarded it as only a whim of the pious Tsar. One of the statesmen declared it a "piece of sublime mysticism and nonsense." The far-seeing Metternich, however, realized that some strong force would indeed be needed to suppress any outbreaks that might occur, and shortly afterwards formed a secret alliance with Prussia, Russia, and England (November, 1815), which constituted a sort of international committee to uphold the settlement at Vienna. Meetings were to be held from time to time and such measures taken as seemed to them necessary to maintain order.

The repressive means employed by this group of powers were

attributed later by the liberals to the Holy Alliance, which seemed to them a conspiracy of despotic monarchs to suppress freedom and reform, under a pious guise. This confusion was a natural result of the fact that the same rulers belonged to both the Holy Alliance and the Quadruple Alliance. The Holy Alliance of Alexander really amounted to nothing; it was the Quadruple Alliance of the four great powers which held Europe in its grip until the liberals proved themselves too strong to be longer bound by it.

II. The German Confederation

648. Reduced Number of States in Germany. The Napoleonic occupation of Germany left permanent results. The consolidation of territory that followed the cession of the west bank of the Rhine to France had, as has been explained, deprived the bishops, abbots, and knights, and most of the free towns, of their rights as governments. Their lands had been given to more important princes; hence there remained only thirty-eight German states, including four towns, when the Congress of Vienna took up the question of forming a confederation to replace the former Holy Roman Empire (§§ 606 ff.).

649. Growing Importance of Prussia. Prussia was greatly strengthened by the annexation of a part of Saxony and of the Rhine provinces. Moreover, the reforms carried out in Prussia after the battle of Jena by the distinguished minister Stein and his successor, Hardenberg, had done for Prussia somewhat the same thing that the first National Assembly had done for France. The abolition of the feudal social castes and the liberation of the serfs prepared the way for a great modern business development of the country. The reorganization of the whole military system made possible Prussia's great victories in 1866 and 1870, which led to the formation of a new German empire under her leadership.

650. The German Confederation a Union of Rulers. In 1815, after the glorious victory over Napoleon, many of the German

liberals longed to see the German states united in a common fatherland. The great obstacle to any thoroughgoing unification lay in the fact that the two chief German rulers, the emperor of Austria and the king of Prussia, possessed considerable territory the population of which was not German: Prussia had Polish possessions, and the emperor of Austria was king of Hungary and ruled over several kinds of Slavs and also Italians.

So the choice lay between including in the proposed union only the German-speaking portions of Prussia and Austria or attempting to embrace a large number of non-German peoples. The conclusion reached at Vienna was that the new German union should include only those territories which had formed part of the Holy Roman Empire before the disturbances caused by Napoleon. This arrangement left large portions of Prussia and Austria out of the union and led some decades later, as we shall see, to a war between Prussia and Austria. The result of this conflict was to bring all the Prussian possessions into the German Empire and push Austria out altogether.[1]

Moreover, following the old tradition of the Holy Roman Empire, the union was really a confederation of rulers rather than of countries. The various German sovereigns were reluctant, moreover, to sacrifice any of their independence in favor of a central government, and so the confederation really amounted to little more than an alliance between practically independent states.

The diet which held its meetings at Frankfurt was composed not of representatives of the *people*, but of the *rulers* who were members of the confederation. The members reserved to themselves the right of forming alliances of all kinds, but pledged themselves to make no agreement endangering the safety of the union or of any of its members, nor to make war upon any member of the confederation on any pretense whatsoever. The constitution could not be amended without the approval of *all* the governments concerned. In spite of its obvious weaknesses

[1] Observe the boundary of the German Confederation as it is indicated on Map 18.

the confederation of 1815 lasted for half a century, until Prussia finally expelled Austria from the union by arms and incorporated the rest of Germany in the German Empire.

651. Disappointment of the Liberals. The German liberals were not only disappointed that the Congress of Vienna had failed to weld Germany into a modern national state, but they were also troubled because the king of Prussia had broken his promise to give Prussia a constitution. But Frederick William III was a weak monarch and had lived through such a period of revolutionary disorder that he was very willing to listen to the advice of Metternich, who opposed all tendencies toward democracy and constitutional government.

652. Liberal Thought in Germany Suppressed. The attacks upon the freedom of the press, and especially the interference with the liberty of teaching in the universities, which were already beginning to pride themselves on their scholarship and science, scandalized such progressive spirits as Germany possessed; yet no successful protest was raised, and Germany as a whole submitted for a generation to Metternich's system by which reform of all kinds was discouraged.

653. Some of the Southern German States receive Constitutions (1818–1820). Nevertheless, important progress was made in southern Germany. As early as 1818 the king of Bavaria granted his people a constitution in which he stated their rights and admitted them to a share in the government by establishing a parliament. His example was followed within two years by the rulers of Baden, Württemberg, and Hesse.

III. Revolution in Spain and her Colonies; Independence of Latin-America

654. The Old Régime restored in Spain. The very thoroughness with which Metternich's ideas of repression were carried out in the Mediterranean states led the liberals in Spain and Italy to be the first to make an attempt to rid the people of their despotic rulers.

When the former king of Spain, Ferdinand VII, was restored to power by the allies, he abolished completely all the reforms that Napoleon had introduced (§ 623). A noteworthy constitution which the Spanish people had adopted in 1812 was annulled. The Inquisition, feudal privileges, and monastic orders were all brought back, along with the system of absolute government. Books and newspapers were strictly censored, free speech was repressed, and great numbers of liberals were imprisoned or executed.

655. The Spanish-American Colonies. Far more important than the discontent at home was the revolt which had been going on for years in the Spanish territory across the Atlantic, where the colonists were fighting to secure their freedom from the mother country. Spain itself was, of course, but a small part of the vast Spanish empire, which included her large possessions in the New World. These embraced Mexico (and the regions to the northwest, later acquired by the United States), Central America, and nearly all South America except Brazil, which belonged to Portugal. The mother country had from the first monopolized the trade of her colonies. This selfish policy caused great discontent among the colonists. When Napoleon placed his brother on the throne of Spain, the Latin Americans[1] saw their commerce still further threatened. Encouraged by the success of the North American colonies in gaining their independence from England, the Spanish Americans revolted.

656. Revolt of the Spanish Colonies (1810–1825). Beginning in 1810, Mexico, New Granada (now Colombia), Venezuela, Peru, Argentina, and Chile, while they still professed to be loyal to Ferdinand VII, took their government into their own hands and drove out the former Spanish officials. At first these revolts were put down with great cruelty; but in 1817, under the leadership of Bolivar, Venezuela won its entire independence. During the following five years the Spaniards also lost

[1] South and Central America and Mexico are often spoken of as Latin America, because their inhabitants speak Spanish or Portuguese, which are languages derived from Latin.

New Granada, Peru, Ecuador, Chile, Mexico, and lastly (1825) Upper Peru, which was renamed Bolivia after its liberator.

657. Revolution in Spain (1820). Ever since his restoration Ferdinand VII had been sending thousands of men to die of fever and wounds in the vain attempt to subdue the insurgents in South America. At last, in January, 1820, the soldiers who were waiting in Cadiz to be sent to America, well aware of the sufferings of the regiments which had preceded them, were easily aroused to revolt. The revolution spread to Madrid, where a mob surrounded the palace (March 9) and forced the king to take an oath to restore the constitution of 1812.

658. Interference of France in Spain. The representatives of the Great Powers—Russia, Austria, Prussia, France, and England—met at Verona in 1822, to discuss what should be done about the Spanish crisis. Great Britain refused to interfere in any way. Her people sympathized with the efforts of the Spanish colonies to win their independence; moreover, it was not to England's advantage to assist Ferdinand to regain his power and perhaps recover the Spanish-American colonies. She did not wish to lose the profitable trade which was opened up to her by the new South American states. But Louis XVIII was induced to send an army across the Pyrenees. The French commander easily defeated the revolutionists and placed Ferdinand in a position to stamp out his enemies. He did this in such a ferocious and bloodthirsty manner that his French allies were heartily ashamed of him.

659. European Policies and the Monroe Doctrine. While France was helping to restore absolutism in Spain, the Spanish colonies, as we have seen, were rapidly winning their independence, encouraged by the United States and England.

The threats of Metternich and his friends to help Spain restore her control over her colonies led President Monroe, in his message to Congress, December, 1823, to call attention to the dangers of intervention as practiced by the European alliance of great powers, and to state clearly what has since become famous as the "Monroe Doctrine"; namely, that the United States

would consider any attempt on the part of the European allies to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to the peace and safety of the United States and as an unfriendly act.

IV. Revolutionary Movements in Italy; Independence of Belgium

660. Italy "a Geographical Expression" in 1820. Italy was at this time what Metternich called only "a geographical expression,"—it had no political unity whatever. Lombardy and Venetia, in the northern part, were in the hands of Austria; and Parma, Modena, and Tuscany belonged to members of the Austrian family. In the south the considerable kingdom of the Two Sicilies was ruled over by a branch of the Spanish Bourbons, while the Papal States cut through the center of the peninsula. There seemed to be no hope of making Italy into a united nation.

The downfall of Napoleon left Italy seemingly in a worse state than that in which he had found it. The hold of Austria was strengthened by her acquisition of Venetia. The petty despots of Parma, Modena, and Tuscany, reseated on their thrones by the Congress of Vienna, hastened to sweep away the reforms which Napoleon had introduced, and to reëstablish all the evils of the old régime. The lesser Italian princes, moreover, showed themselves to be heartily in sympathy with Austria, notwithstanding the cordial hatred of the Italian people for the Austrians.

661. Revolutionary Movements in Italy (1820–1821). General discontent began to spread throughout the peninsula and led to the formation of numerous secret societies, which assumed strange names, practiced mysterious rites, and plotted darkly in the name of Italian liberty and independence. By far the most noted of these associations took the strange name of *Carbonari*; that is, charcoal-burners. Its objects were individual liberty, constitutional government, and national independence

and unity. These it undertook to promote by agitation, by conspiracy, and, if it proved necessary, by revolution. Their efforts were not, however, very successful.

On hearing of the revolution in Spain the liberals in Naples took courage and forced their ruler to adopt for his kingdom the Spanish constitution, which they greatly admired. The alert Metternich, who had from time to time called congresses of the European powers, obtained the consent of Russia and Prussia to dispatch Austrian troops to check the development of "revolt and crime." The liberals of Naples were not prepared to withstand an attack of the Austrian army, and so the revolution was soon put down. The desire for reform, however, and for a united Italy free from foreign interference was not crushed by Metternich's troops, but continued to grow and await a more favorable opportunity for its realization. The way in which the present kingdom of Italy came about will be described later.

662. Belgium becomes an Independent Kingdom in 1831. A new little kingdom was added to the European states by the revolt of the former Austrian Netherlands from the king of Holland, to whom they had been assigned by the Congress of Vienna. The southern Netherlands were still as different from the northern as they had been in the time of William the Silent. Holland was Protestant and German; while the southern provinces, to whom the union with Holland had always been distasteful, were Catholic and akin to the French in their sympathies. Encouraged by the revolution at Paris in 1830 (§ 687), the people of Brussels rose in revolt against their Dutch king and forced his troops to leave the city.

Through the influence of England and France the European powers agreed to recognize the independence of the Belgians, who established a kingdom and introduced an excellent constitution providing for a limited monarchy modeled upon that of England. The neutrality of Belgium was solemnly guaranteed by the European powers, including Prussia, but this did not prevent Germany from violating Belgian territory and making it a battleground in 1914.

QUESTIONS

I. Upon what points did the Congress of Vienna easily agree? Upon what two points was there serious discord?

II. What were the chief results of the Napoleonic period in Germany? How was Prussia strengthened as a result of Napoleon's intervention in Germany? Describe the German Confederation of 1815. Who was Metternich, and what were his views? Do you think that the government ought to prevent criticism of its policy?

III. Why is there a monument in St. Augustine, Florida, in honor of the Spanish constitution of 1812? What colonies did Spain hold in America? What caused the Spanish colonies to revolt from the mother country? What were the circumstances which led to the formulation of the "Monroe Doctrine"?

IV. Of what states was Italy composed after 1815? What were the chief obstacles in the way of a united Italy? How did the Pope come to be the ruler of an Italian state? Explain why Metternich was able to oppose successfully the tendencies toward revolution. How did the kingdom of Belgium come into existence?

CHAPTER XXXI

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

I. The New Age of Machinery

663. A Revolution that changed the Life of Everyone. In the preceding chapters we have reviewed the startling changes and reforms introduced by the leaders of the French Revolution and by Napoleon Bonaparte, and the reconstruction of Europe at the Congress of Vienna. These were mainly the work of statesmen, warriors, and diplomats. But a still more fundamental revolution than that which has been described had begun in England before the meeting of the Estates General.

In studying the past we sometimes make the mistake of thinking that the great mass of the people were taking part in the various wars and congresses. We need only recollect, however, that even during the recent World War the everyday life of the great majority of people in the United States who did not participate directly or indirectly in the conflict went on much as usual. So it must have been in the past. While statesmen discussed the distribution of territories and thrones, almost everyone went about his work little conscious of the changes that were taking place. Whether Polish territory went to Prussia or Russia, or a Bourbon king sat on the throne of France or not, the laborious life of the farmer and workman remained much the same.

We shall now turn our attention to a revolution which *did* alter the life of everyone. This revolution was the work of scientific men and patient inventors who set about to improve man's ways of living. These men never stirred an assembly by their fiery denunciation of evils, or led an army to victory, or conducted a clever diplomatic negotiation; on the contrary,

their attention was concentrated upon improving the homely operations of everyday life—the work of the housewife drawing out her thread with a distaff or spinning wheel, of the weaver at his primitive loom, of the miner struggling against the water which threatened to flood his mine.

664. The World transformed by Machinery. Most of us accept the world in which we live—that is, the clothes we wear, our modern houses, trains, steamships, skyscrapers, asphalt streets, telephones, automobiles—as if it had always existed. We do not realize the countless discoveries, inventions, and improvements which had to be made in order to transform the conditions of the eighteenth century (Chapter XXVI) into those of our modern world.

Indeed, until the nineteenth century the people of western Europe and America for the most part continued to till their fields, weave their cloth, and saw and plane their boards by hand, much as the ancient Egyptians had done. Merchandise was still transported in slow, lumbering carts, and letters were as long in getting from London to Paris as in the reign of Constantine. Suddenly, however, a series of ingenious devices were invented which in a few generations eclipsed the achievements of ages and revolutionized every branch of business. This change is known as the *Industrial Revolution*, and its most important factor is the introduction of machinery. The power and tireless energy of the machine were substituted for the human hand; moreover, it was now no longer necessary for the horse or the ox to drag persons or goods slowly from place to place. The amount of work which could be accomplished in the world by these new slaves of iron was indefinitely increased. The modern era, with its opportunity for endless improvements, had begun. Let us examine some of the ways in which this came about.

665. Improvements in Spinning and Weaving. If one walks through a department store today, he may see hundreds of yards of cotton goods, silks, woolens, and velvets of marvelous fineness and beauty neatly piled on the shelves. None of this

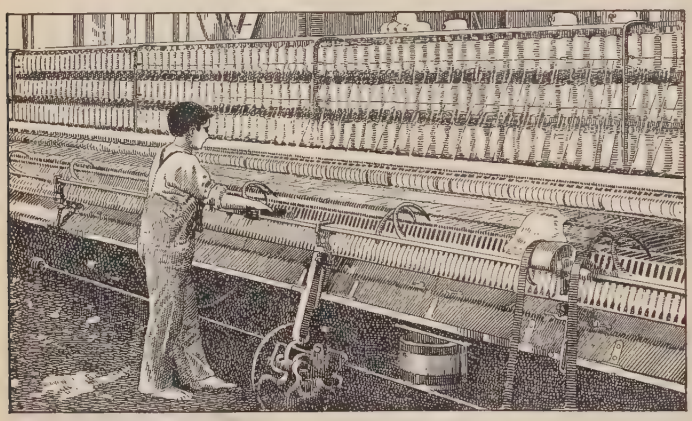
material has been made by hand, but has been skillfully and rapidly manufactured by machinery. The revolution in manufacture which has taken place in the last hundred and fifty years is excellently illustrated by the improvement in making these woven fabrics. In order to produce cloth, one must first *spin* (that is, twist) the wool, cotton, or flax into thread; then, by means of a loom, the thread can be *woven* into a fabric. If we examine a handkerchief or a piece of our clothing carefully, we can see how skillfully the many threads are interlaced. A simple way of spinning thread had been in use for thousands of years, but it was possible for a person to make only a single thread at a time. This method was so slow that the weavers could not get all the thread they needed. There was great demand, therefore, for a means of spinning which would supply thread as fast as the weavers could use it. By 1767 James Hargreaves, an English spinner, invented what was called a spinning jenny, which enabled a workman, by turning a wheel, to spin eight or ten threads at once and thus do the work of eight or ten spinners.[1] A year later a barber, Richard Arkwright, patented a device operated by water power for drawing out thread by means of rollers. Before the end of the eighteenth century improved machines spinning two hundred threads simultaneously

DISTAFF

[1] The hand spinner had bunches of wool, which had been combed into loose curls, on the end of a stick, or distaff. She pulled and twisted the wool with her fingers into a yarn, which she wound on the spindle. By whirling the spindle around she could help twist. The spinning wheel was invented to give a better twist to the spindle. It had become common in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries and was still used by our great-grandmothers.

had been invented; and as they were driven by power and required only one or two watchers, they produced thread so much more cheaply that the hand workers could not compete with them. Such inventions as these produced the modern factory system.

666. The Power Loom and the Cotton Gin. The enormous output of thread and yarn on these new machines made the



SPINNING MULE

The spinning mule requires only one person to operate a long row of spindles and does the work of many hand spinners

weavers dissatisfied with the clumsy old hand loom, which could not now take care of the thread as fast as it was produced.

In order to weave, one must have a frame, or loom, with a roller at the back on which are wound the long threads that are to run the length of the fabric. These threads are called the *warp*. They are stretched tight on the frame in front of the weaver. There is a device which enables him to raise every other thread by putting his foot on a treadle. The cross thread, called the *woof*, is wound on a shuttle which the weaver passes through the warp and which goes under one thread and over the next. He then presses another treadle, which reverses the position of the threads of the warp, raising those that had been

down before, so that when he passes the shuttle back, it goes under the threads it went over the first time. By repeating this process the threads are interlaced and the cloth is gradually built up. This is the simplest form of weaving, and was practiced by the women of the lake villages, of which we learned in Chapter I.

In 1784 Dr. Cartwright, a clergyman of Kent, patented a new loom, run by water power, which threw the shuttle and shifted the warp for itself. This machine was steadily improved during the nineteenth century, until today a single machine operated by one workman can do as much weaving in a day as two hundred weavers could do with old-fashioned hand looms. The accompanying illustration gives some idea of a modern spinning machine.

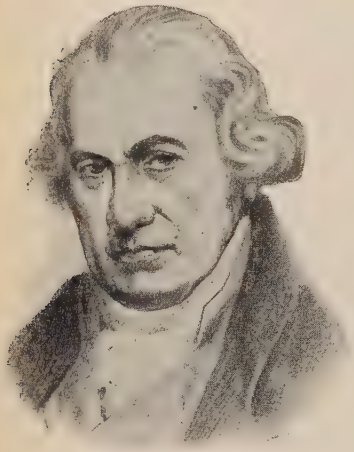
Other inventions followed. The time required for bleaching was reduced from several months to a few days by using chemicals instead of relying principally upon the sunlight. In 1792 Eli Whitney, in the United States, invented a device (called a *gin*) which enabled one man to take the seeds out of fifty pounds of cotton a day instead of five or six pounds, which had been the limit for the hand worker. Later the cotton gin was improved, and operated by steam, so that at the present time it will clean three or four thousand pounds of cotton in a day.

II. The Steam Engine

667. Demand for Iron, Steel, and Power. The new inventions greatly increased the demand for iron and steel, for it was necessary to have a strong and durable material out of which machinery could be made. Moreover, some adequate power had to be found to run the new machines. Windmills were common, and waterfalls and streams had long been used to turn water wheels; but the wind was uncertain and the streams were often low. The earliest use of steam was to operate pumps, which raised water into high reservoirs so that it could be used to run water wheels. Steam pumps were also used to drain water

from mines. With the perfecting of the steam engine for running machinery old difficulties were overcome, and there was no need, as formerly, of locating factories near flowing water.

While new methods of spinning and weaving were being introduced, other inventors were finding better ways of melting and forging iron, and still others were improving the crude steam engines then in use. New processes for reducing iron from the ore were discovered. Coal began to be used instead of charcoal for softening the metal, and the old-fashioned bellows were replaced by great blast furnaces. Steam hammers were invented, weighing hundreds of pounds and striking hundreds of blows a minute, which could be used to beat the iron into shape.



James Watt

668. Watt's Steam Engine. James Watt was the first to make the steam engine a practical device for furnishing power to the new machines. Watt did not, however, *invent* the steam engine, as has been commonly supposed. As an instrument-maker in Glasgow, he was called upon (about 1760) to repair the model of a steam engine invented sixty years earlier by an ingenious mechanic named Newcomen. Watt hit upon a number of important improvements, and devised a scheme for making the engine turn the wheels of a machine attached to it. In 1785 the steam engine was first applied to spinning-machinery, and by the end of the century the new engines were becoming as common as the old windmills and water mills.

669. The Industrial Revolution in France. England was the first country to develop the modern use of machinery for manu-

facturing. It was not until after the establishment of peace in 1815 that the Industrial Revolution really began in France. At that time there was only one small steam engine employed in French industry—at a cotton factory in Alsace; but by 1847 France had nearly five thousand steam engines, with a capacity of sixty thousand horse power, and many important manufacturing centers had developed. Paris alone had three hundred and forty-two thousand factory workers; other cities had their great factories; and whole quarters inhabited exclusively by factory laborers grew up in manufacturing centers.

670. The Age of Steam. While the improved steam engine was first used in factories, it soon revolutionized navigation and transportation. We shall see in a later chapter how the steamboat and the steam locomotive made it possible for men to get from place to place in a much shorter time than was required by the stagecoach or the sailing vessel. Moreover, the manufactured goods which were now produced in such large quantities by the new power machines could be sent rapidly all over the world. Thus both commerce and business were enormously increased. For a century or more, steam was used to run machinery; but now it has to some extent been replaced by gasoline and by electricity, for men have learned how to utilize the electric current to drive great power plants, to run trolley cars, and to send messages around the world (§§ 851, 901).

III. Capitalism and the Factory System

671. The Domestic System of Industry. Having seen how machinery was introduced in England in the latter part of the eighteenth century and how steam came to be utilized as a motive power, we have now to consider the important results of these inventions in changing the conditions under which people lived and worked. Up to this time "manufacture" still meant, as it did in the original Latin (*manu facere*), "to make by hand." Artisans carried on trades with their own tools in their own homes or in small shops, as the cobbler does today. Instead

of working with hundreds of others in great factories and being entirely dependent upon his wages, a workman, in England at least, was often able to give some attention to a small garden plot, from which he derived a part of his support. The old method of manufacture is known as the *domestic* system. The introduction of machinery changed this. Hand laborers were no longer able to compete with the swift and tireless machines and found their work growing more and more unprofitable. Large factories sprang up, and the workers now realized that they had to leave their pleasant surroundings and live near their work; long rows of houses, without gardens or even grassplots, were hastily built around the factory buildings, and thus the ugly tenement districts and slums of our cities came into existence.

672. Mass Production and the Division of Labor. By the invention and constant improvement of machinery the whole process of making shoes, furniture, clothing, knives, jewelry, and every article we use has been changed. Whereas in the days of the guild system (§ 272) a pair of shoes, a coat, or a table was made by one workman, now special machines are devised for every detail of the process. One workman may operate a machine which does only one small part of the work required, and have no further participation in the manufacture of an article; but the speed and reliability of these machines make it possible for the modern factory to turn out large quantities of the article in the same time that an old-fashioned shop could have produced one.

673. The Capitalist and the Workingman. There grew up, as a result of this great revolution in the methods of manufacturing, two new social classes. There were, on the one hand, the capitalists, who owned the buildings and the machinery and who had the money necessary to run the business; and, on the other, the workmen whom they hired to operate the machines. The workingman became dependent upon the few who were rich enough to set up factories. He could no longer earn a livelihood in the old way, by conducting a small shop of his own, but must seek employment from the capitalist. As long as there were

plenty of workers the business man could fix any hours and pay what he wished. The question of how much of the profits shall go to the business man, or capitalist, and how much shall be given to the workmen immediately became, and still is, the most vital question in the problem of the relation of labor and capital.

674. Women and Children in the Factories. The destruction of the domestic system of industry had also an unhappy effect upon the work and the lives of women and children. Before the invention of the steam engine, when the simple machines were worked by hand, children could be employed only in some of the minor processes, such as preparing the cotton for spinning; but in the modern factory, labor was largely confined to watching machines, piecing broken threads, and working levers, so that both women and children could be used as effectively as men, and much more cheaply.

This tended greatly to increase the number employed in the factories. Under the old system of domestic industry the women had worked at varied tasks, which they had performed at home; whereas under the new system they had to flock to the factory at the call of the whistle, and labor monotonously at a speed set by the foreman. This led to many grave evils which, as we shall see, the government has been called upon to remedy from time to time by factory legislation. Although women and children have been saved some of the worst hardships, a great deal still remains to be done.

675. The Capitalists oppose Government Interference. The capitalists and business classes maintained that the government should not attempt to regulate the prices of goods or their quality. Neither should it interfere with the employer and his workmen, except to protect both from violence; it should not fix the hours of work or the conditions in the factories. Prices, they maintained, would be kept down by the competition among the manufacturers, and wages would be fixed by the number of people seeking work and the need for their services. Everyone should have the greatest freedom to do what he was able to

do. If he was a person of ability, he would prosper; if he had no special ability, he could only hope to get the wages that the employer found it advantageous to pay him.

676. Sad Results of the Industrial Revolution. The chief trouble with this theory was that it did not work well in practice. On the contrary, the great manufacturing cities, instead of being filled with happy and prosperous people, became the homes of a small number of capitalists, who had grown rich as the owners and directors of the factories, and multitudes of poor working people with no other resources than their wages, which were often not enough to feed and clothe their families. Little children under nine years of age, working from twelve to fifteen hours a day, and women forced to leave their homes to tend the machines in the factories were now replacing the men workers. After their long day's work they returned to miserable tenements, which were the only lodgings they could afford.

677. Laws to protect Workingmen. After the close of the Napoleonic wars, as things got worse rather than better, there were increasing signs of discontent in England. This led to various attempts to improve matters. There were those who hoped to secure reforms by extending the right to vote, in order that the working classes might be represented in Parliament and so have laws passed to remedy at least the worst evils. In this movement some of the wealthier class often joined; but the working people were naturally chiefly interested, and they embodied their ideas of reform in a great "people's charter," which will be described later (§ 763).

678. Origin of Trade Unions. In addition to this attempt to secure reform through the government, the workingmen formed unions of their own in the various trades and industries, in order to protect themselves by dealing in a body with their employers. The trade-union movement began in the early part of the nineteenth century.[1] At first the formation of unions was forbidden

[1] The old guilds (§§ 272, 501) resembled modern labor unions, but included both capitalists and laborers. Our labor unions did not grow out of the mediæval guilds, but were organized to meet new evils.

by English law. Men were sentenced to imprisonment or deportation as convicts if they joined such "combinations," or unions, to raise their wages. In 1824 Parliament repealed this harsh law, and trade unions increased rapidly. They were hampered, however, by various restrictions; and even now, although they have spread widely all over the world, people are by no means agreed as to whether workingmen's unions are the best way of improving the conditions of the laboring classes.

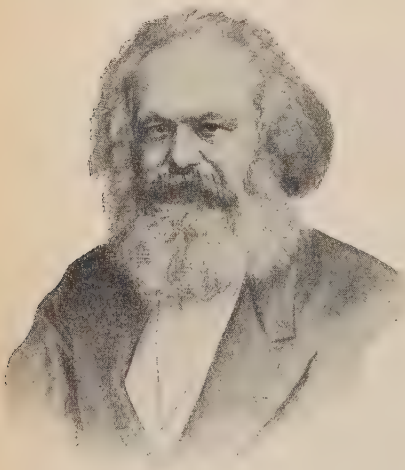
Another theory for permanently bettering the situation of the working people was *socialism*. As socialism has played an important rôle in the history of Europe during the past fifty years, we must stop to examine the meaning of this word.

IV. The Rise of Socialism

679. Social Ownership of the Means of Production. Socialists hold that "the means of production" should belong to society and not be held as the private property of individuals. "The means of production" is a very vague phrase and might include farms and gardens as well as tools; but when the socialist uses it, he is generally thinking of the *machines* which the Industrial Revolution has brought into the world and of the factories and mines which house and keep them going, as well as of the railroads and steamships which carry their products. In short, the main idea of the socialists is that the great industries which have arisen as a result of the Industrial Revolution should not be left in private hands. They claim that it is not right for the capitalists to own the mills upon which the workingman must depend for his living; that the attempt of labor unions to get higher wages does not offer more than a temporary relief, since the *system* is wrong which permits the wealthy to have such a control over the poor. The person who works for wages, say the socialists, is not free: he is a "wage slave" of his employer. To remedy this the socialist would turn over the great industries of the capitalists to national, state, or town

ownership, so that all may have a share in the profits. This ideal state of society, which, they say, is sure to come in the future, they call the Coöperative Commonwealth.

The first socialists relied on the kind hearts of the capitalists to bring about the change, once the situation was made clear. Modern socialists, however, do not think that the rich will ever, from pure unselfishness, give up their control over industries; so they turn to working-people only, and call upon them to reform industry in the face of opposition of the capitalists. They claim that wealth is produced by labor, for which capital but furnishes the opportunity, and that labor is justified in taking what it produces.[1]



KARL MARX

680. Karl Marx. The great teacher of this modern doctrine of socialism was Karl Marx, a German writer who lived most of his life in London. He was a learned man, trained in philosophy and political economy, and he came to the conclusion from a study of history that just as the capitalists[2] had replaced the feudal nobles, so the working class would eventually replace the capitalists. By "working class" he meant those who depend upon their work for a living. The introduction of the factory system had reduced the vast majority of workmen to a position in which the

[1] This does not mean that socialists would divide up all private property. They claim only that there shall be no unearned wealth in private hands controlling, as now, the industries of the country. Brain workers are also "workers."

[2] The French term *bourgeoisie* is often used by socialists for this class.

capitalist was able to dictate the conditions upon which this work should be done. Marx, in an eloquent appeal[1] in 1847, called upon the members of this "proletariat" (or body of wage earners), "who have nothing to lose but their chains," to rise and seize the means of production themselves.

Marx later wrote a learned work called "Capital," in which he sought to prove by history that socialism was bound in time to prevail. This book has exercised a very great influence on European socialists and has become for them a sort of Bible. There are, however, many kinds of socialists, and some of them do not agree with a number of Marx's conclusions.

681. Socialistic Parties. During the last half of the nineteenth century the socialists have organized into political parties in all the countries of Europe and in America. From a position of small influence they have in some countries grown to exercise great power. After the World War the socialists assumed control of the government in both Russia and Germany.

Although *all* socialists believe that the capitalistic system should be abolished, they differ as to the measures which should be taken. In England socialists generally agree that a long process of education is necessary, while in Russia a group of socialists in 1917 overthrew the government and have attempted to manage the country according to their own ideas.

There are many people who recognize that workmen have not been fairly treated and desire to see some means devised by which a juster distribution of the profits of business can be assured. They do not agree with socialists, however, in believing that a solution of this difficult problem can be reached by turning over the factories either to the government or to the workers themselves. They argue that those who have the ability to conduct business on a large scale are very rare and deserve to be more highly paid than the workers, who assume no responsibility for the management or success of the enterprise.

[1] The *Communist Manifesto*, written jointly with Frederick Engels. Marx used the word "communism" to distinguish his plan from the socialism of the "dreamers," who looked to the capitalists for help.

QUESTIONS

I. What do you understand by the term "Industrial Revolution"? What is spinning? weaving? Give some account of the way in which our modern way of spinning and weaving by machinery grew up.

II. What conditions were necessary for the development of modern machinery? Do you understand just what makes a steam engine run? When did steam engines begin to be used in factories?

III. What was the "domestic" system of industry? What is the principle of the factory system? Give all the results you can of the introduction of machinery and the growth of factories. What do you understand by "capital"? Contrast the theories of the capitalist with those of the factory hand. Why were trade-unions formed? Why do some business men oppose them?

IV. Describe the theories of the socialists of the first half of the nineteenth century. Why do modern socialists regard these theories as impracticable? Who was Karl Marx? What advantages do the socialists claim would come if our present system were abolished?

CHAPTER XXXII

THE REVOLUTIONS OF 1848 AND THEIR RESULTS

I. France from Napoleon I to Napoleon III

682. General Revolutionary Movement in Europe in 1848. By the year 1848 there had grown up in all the countries of Europe that had suffered from the influence of Metternich's reactionary ideas a demand for a thoroughgoing reform. There were an increasing number of liberals who believed that the government should concern itself with the wishes and welfare of the people, rather than with the interests of the few kings, princes, and diplomats who had arranged a system from which they alone could profit.

In Germany and Italy the hopes of those who ardently longed for a united fatherland were frustrated by the rulers of the various little countries who, encouraged by Austria, refused to give up any of their power. Moreover, the monarchs of the larger states followed as far as they could the old-time custom of sovereigns in maintaining an absolute control over their subjects. Metternich, as we have seen, was not content to dominate the Hapsburg realms in Austria and Italy, but lent "aid and comfort" to every monarch who shared his views.

There were a number of reasons why the forces of discontent had increased rather than declined, in spite of the vigilance of Metternich and his friends. In the first place, the reforms which had been achieved during the French Revolution were not forgotten, and the advantages which the privileged classes enjoyed had been too well exposed to deceive the liberals again. They remembered also that great document the Declaration of the Rights of Man, and constantly demanded constitutions which should limit the power of the king. In the second place, the

Industrial Revolution had brought in a new set of ideas in regard to the rights of the laborer and the duties of the government toward him.

There had been unsuccessful revolts in Spain and Italy, but the government had always proved too strong for the small and ill-organized bands of revolutionaries. In 1848, however, the gathering discontent showed far more strength: as if obeying a signal, the liberal parties in France, Italy, Germany, and Austria, during the early months of 1848, got control of the government and attempted to carry out their programs of reform. Although the results of these stirring days were not permanent, they disclosed the strength and determination of the liberals, which were bound to win at a later time.

France once more became the leader in revolutionary reform. Let us review the course of events in France since the ill-fated settlement of the Congress of Vienna, in order to see how the demand for improvement grew up.

683. The Restoration of the Bourbons in France. The French had roused themselves in 1793–1794 to repel the foreign powers, Austria and Prussia, who threatened to bring back the old régime. Twenty years later, in 1814, when the allies entered Paris, there was no danger of the reëstablishment of the old wrongs. It is true that the Bourbon line of kings was restored, but the French had always liked to have a king. It was only the stupid conduct of Louis XVI that had led to his deposition and the founding of a republic, which Napoleon had easily reconverted into a monarchy. The new king, Louis XVIII, made no effort to destroy the great achievements of the Revolution. He granted the nation a constitution, called the Charter, which remained in force (slightly changed in 1830) until 1848.

684. The Charter of 1814. The Charter of 1814 furnishes us with a statement of the permanent results of the Revolution. Almost all the great reforms proclaimed by the first Declaration of the Rights of Man (§ 548) were guaranteed. Everyone was declared equal before the laws. The laws were to be made by the king in coöperation with a parliament, consisting

of a House of Peers and of a Chamber of Deputies elected by the nation; the Chamber might impeach the king's ministers.

685. Charles X (1824–1830) restores the Old Order. As long as Louis XVIII lived he managed to keep the support of a large group of moderates who preferred a king limited in his powers by a constitution to either the dangers of a republic or the caprices of an old-fashioned monarch. Though a thorough believer in "divine right," Louis was determined not to endanger his throne—which he declared was the "easiest of chairs"—by unpopular measures.

In 1824 Louis XVIII died and was succeeded by his brother, the count of Artois, who took the title of Charles X. This was the same count of Artois who, as leader of the emigrant nobles, had plotted with Austria and Prussia to invade France and crush the Revolution (§§ 554, 560). Had the new king been as shrewd as his predecessor, he might have retained his throne until his death; but Charles was too obstinate to give up the idea he had cherished for thirty-five years of seeing a Bourbon king once more possessed with absolute power and supported by the old privileged classes—the clergy and the nobility.

Charles soon made it plain that he intended to interpret the Charter as he saw fit, and in one way or another he managed to make enemies on every side. He reëstablished the influence of the Catholic Church by putting education under the control of the priests; he made sacrilege punishable by death. In 1825 a law was passed voting one billion francs to repay the *émigrés* for their losses in the Revolution. This sum was to be raised in an extraordinary way. The government decided to pay in future only 3 per cent on all its 5 per cent bonds and give the 2 per cent thus saved to the *émigrés*.

686. The Growing Unpopularity of Charles X. The middle class, composed of bankers, merchants, and business men who owned many of these government bonds, saw almost half of their income being taken away without their consent and handed over to the nobility. From this time on, the middle class, or *bourgeoisie*, were the bitterest and most active enemies

of the king. The royalists began to lose their influence in the House of Deputies, and republicans were elected in their places. When the king found at length that he could not control the Chamber, he dissolved it and boldly issued a series of decrees establishing a censorship of the press, limiting the right to vote to a small class of wealthy landowners, and providing that in future the king alone could propose new laws. These ordinances took away from the French people practically all the rights which they had regained through the Charter, and left them once more at the mercy of an absolute king.

687. The French Revolution of 1830. The day following the issuing of the decrees (July 25, 1830), the newspaper men published a protest pointing out that "since the government has violated the law, we are under no obligation to obey it. . . . For our part we shall resist it; it is for France to judge how far her resistance shall extend." This protest seems to have been all that was needed to give courage to the republicans, who still cherished the traditions of 1792. They now set about once more to overthrow a despotic king. On July 27 they began tearing up the paving stones for barricades, behind which they could defend themselves in the narrow streets against the police and soldiers. The king, who was at his country residence at St. Cloud, regarded the insurrection as a mere street fight which the troops could easily put down, and played whist in the evening according to his custom.

But on July 29 the entire city of Paris was in the hands of the insurgents. The king, now realizing the seriousness of the situation, opened negotiations with the deputies and promised to repeal the obnoxious ordinances. It was, however, too late; a group of wealthy bankers and business men was busily engaged in an intrigue to place upon the throne Louis Philippe, a descendant of Henry IV through the younger, or Orleans, branch of the Bourbon family. (See Table XI.) Louis Philippe's father, the duke of Orleans, had supported the cause of the people during the Revolution, but had been executed as a "suspect" during the Reign of Terror. Louis Philippe had

been associated with the Jacobins and had fought in the army of the Republic. He was later exiled, and after the restoration he became reconciled with Louis XVIII. He did not join the royalist party, however, but sought popular favor by professing democratic opinions, conducting himself like a plain citizen, entertaining bankers and financiers at his home in Paris, and sending his children to ordinary schools instead of employing private tutors. He was therefore the natural candidate of those who wished to preserve the monarchy and yet to establish the middle class in power in place of the nobles and clergy.

688. Louis Philippe becomes King of France (1830–1848). When Charles saw that he could no longer retain his crown, he abdicated. Shortly afterwards the Chamber of Deputies passed a resolution (which was ratified by the Chamber of Peers) calling Louis Philippe to the throne as King of the French. The hopes of the republicans, who had borne the brunt of the revolution, were now at an end, for they saw that their party was not strong enough to prevent another king from ascending the throne of France. Both the republicans and the old aristocracy had been forced to give way before the rising middle class of wealthy business men—the *bourgeoisie*.

689. Slight Results of the Revolution. In reality, however, the revolution of 1830 made few changes. One king had been exchanged for another who professed more liberal views, but the government was no more democratic than before. The right to vote was still limited to the few wealthy taxpayers, and government by clergy and nobility had given place to government by bankers, speculators, manufacturers, and merchants. Parliament undertook to make the necessary changes in the existing charter. Freedom of the press and the responsibility of the ministers to the Legislative Assembly were expressly proclaimed. The provision establishing the Roman Catholic religion as the religion of the State was stricken out, and the influence of the clergy in politics was greatly reduced. The tricolored flag of the Revolution was adopted as the national flag, instead of the white banner of the Bourbons; but France

was still a monarchy, and the labors of the republicans in organizing the insurrection appeared to have gone for naught.

690. Unpopularity of Louis Philippe. The new king announced that his policy would be the golden mean between conservatism and liberalism. He was himself an excellent *bourgeois*: he lived without the luxury and show which former French kings had affected, and was fond of going shopping, almost unattended, with his green umbrella under his arm. He ruled like a very cautious business man who was afraid to risk any innovations, regarding the government as a kind of business enterprise. As time wore on he became more and more conservative and at last intolerant.

There were two types of extremists who were bitterly opposed to this middle-class monarchy: the supporters of the Bourbons, who regarded the grandson of the deposed Charles X as their lawful king, and the republicans, who had never given up hope of bringing back the days of 1792. The royalist party was small, being made up mainly of the clergy and nobility and some of the faithful peasant class.

On the other hand, the republicans were strengthened by the new group of socialistic writers who hoped to see the middle class divested of their wealth as the nobility had been of their privileges and the clergy of their property. They desired a fundamental reorganization of the government for the benefit of the working classes.

This party carried on its work mainly through secret societies. It published a number of papers which criticized the government and even made fun of the king. This led the government to pass a law forbidding the formation of any association which had not previously submitted its rules to government officials for approval. Exceptional measures were also taken against the press, including a censorship of drawings and caricatures. It was made a crime to question the right to private property or the established government or to incite the people to revolt.

691. The Second Republic Proclaimed. On February 24, 1848, after a couple of days of street riots, a mob invaded the Assem-

bly, as in the time of the Reign of Terror, crying: "Down with the Bourbons, old and new! Long live the Republic!" The king was thoroughly frightened and abdicated, and a provisional government was established. The first decree of this body reëstablished a republic and was solemnly proclaimed on the site of the former Bastille, February 27. Thus the Second French Republic came into existence.

692. The "Red Republic." The new provisional government was scarcely in session before it was threatened by the "red republic," whose representatives, the Social Democrats, desired to put the laboring classes of the cities in control of the government and to let them conduct it in their own interests, and wished to substitute the red flag[1] for the national colors. The government went so far as to concede one demand of the Social Democrats, the so-called right to labor; that is, the duty of the government to see that everyone had work. Great numbers of the unemployed were given useless work by the Assembly.

693. Insurrection in Paris (June, 1848). A National Assembly had been convoked whose members were elected by the votes of all Frenchmen above the age of twenty-one. Since the majority of Frenchmen were country people who were not interested in the victims of the factory system, the result of the election was an overwhelming defeat for the Social Democrats. Their leaders then tried to overthrow the new Assembly on the pretext that it did not represent the people, but the national guard frustrated the attempt. The number of men now employed on the national works had reached one hundred and seventeen thousand, each of whom received two francs a day in return for either useless labor or mere idleness. No serious attempt was made to make the experiment pay, and it was abolished in June. The result was a terrific battle in the streets of Paris for three days, June 23–25, and over ten thousand persons were killed—more than had perished in the whole Reign of Terror.

[1] Socialists use red as a symbol of the common blood of the brotherhood of man.

694. Establishment of the Second Empire. This desperate outbreak of the forces of revolution resulted in a general conviction that a strong hand was needed to preserve peace. The new constitution decreed that the president of the republic should be chosen by the people at large. Their choice fell upon the nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte, Louis Napoleon, who had already made two futile attempts to make himself the ruler of France.[1] Before the expiration of his four years' term he resorted, like Napoleon I, to a *coup d'état* (December 2, 1851) and set up a new government. He next obtained, by a general vote, the consent of the people to his remaining president for ten years. A year later the dream of his life was at last realized: the Second Empire was established, and as Napoleon III he became "Emperor of the French by the grace of God and the will of the people."

II. The Revolution of 1848 in Austria, Italy, and Germany

695. Austria's Commanding Position. The overthrow of Louis Philippe encouraged the opponents of Metternich in Germany, Austria, and Italy to attempt to make an end of his system at once and forever. In view of the important part that Austria had played in central Europe since the fall of Napoleon I, it was inevitable that she should appear the chief barrier to the attainment of national unity and liberal government in Italy and Germany. As ruler of Lombardy and Venetia she practically controlled Italy, and as presiding member of the German Confederation she had been able to keep even Prussia in line. Moreover, the possessions of the Hapsburgs were inhabited by

[1] Napoleon I and Maria Louisa, the Austrian princess whom he married, had a son, who was called by his supporters Napoleon II. He died in 1832, when he was twenty-one years old. Louis Napoleon (the son of Napoleon I's brother Louis, for a time king of Holland) then conspired against Louis Philippe's government and was imprisoned as a dangerous enemy of the state. When the revolution of 1848 came, he turned up in Paris as a candidate for the presidency of the new republic. He was greatly influenced by the career of Napoleon I and imitated him in many ways.

such a mixture of peoples that to grant these various peoples the right to manage their own affairs would mean the complete break-up of the empire.

696. Overthrow of Metternich (March, 1848). On March 13 the populace of Vienna rose in revolt against the government. Metternich fled; and all his efforts, of thirty years, to suppress reform appeared to have come to naught. Before the end of the month the helpless Austrian emperor had given his permission to the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia to draw up constitutions for themselves granting equality of all classes in the matter of taxation, religious freedom, and liberty of the press, and providing that each country should have a parliament of its own, which should meet once a year.

Napoleon III

697. Revolution in Italy. Italy naturally took this favorable opportunity to revolt against the hated "Germans." Immediately on the news of Metternich's fall the Milanese expelled the Austrian troops from their city, and soon Austria was forced to evacuate a great part of Lombardy. The Venetians followed the lead of Milan and set up the republic of St. Mark. By this time a great part of Italy was in revolt. Constitutions were granted to Naples, Rome, Tuscany, and Piedmont by their rulers. Charles Albert, the king of Sardinia, was forced by public opinion to assume the leadership in the attempt to expel Austria from Italy.

698. Reform Movement in Germany. The news of the February revolution in Paris caused great excitement also in Berlin,

where deputations were sent to the king asking him to grant Prussia a constitution. On March 18 a crowd before the royal palace came into serious collision with the police; some street fighting ensued, and barricades were constructed after the Paris fashion in the districts in which the working people lived. Frederick William IV, hoping to avoid more disorder and bloodshed, promised to summon an assembly to draft the desired constitution.

Moreover, now that Metternich was overthrown, there was some hope of reorganizing the weak German Confederation and of forming a new and firm union which would at last make a real nation of the Germans, freed from the domination of Austria. Urged by a large meeting of liberals, the diet of the Confederation arranged that a national assembly made up of representatives chosen from all the states should meet at Frankfurt and take up the task of drafting a new constitution.

699. Defeat of the Italians (July, 1848). For the moment Austria's chief danger lay in Italy. The Italians were, however, unable to drive the Austrian army out of Italy. Charles Albert found himself, with the exception of a few volunteers, almost unsupported by the other Italian states, which, for one reason or another, grew indifferent as soon as the war had actually begun. On July 25 he was defeated at Custozza and compelled to sign a truce with Austria and withdraw his forces from Lombardy.

700. Conditions in Austria. Meanwhile conditions in Austria began to be favorable to a reëstablishment of the emperor's former influence. Each of the various peoples under Austrian rule had determined to make itself largely independent, and great was the confusion that ensued. The Czechs[1] and Germans in Bohemia hated one another. The Germans naturally opposed the plan of making Bohemia practically independent of the government of Vienna, for it was German Vienna to which they were wont to look for protection against the enterprises of their Czechish fellow countrymen. An insurrection that broke out among the people of Prague gave General Windischgrätz, the

[1] The Slavic inhabitants of Bohemia.

commander of the Austrian forces, a sufficient excuse for intervening. He established a military government, and the prospect of independence for Bohemia vanished. This was Austria's first real victory.

701. Insurrection of the Radicals in Vienna Suppressed. In October, 1848, the radical party rose in Vienna, as it had in Paris after the deposition of Louis Philippe. The minister of war was brutally murdered, and the emperor fled. The city was, however, besieged by General Windischgrätz and was forced to surrender. The imperial government was now in a position still further to strengthen itself. A reactionary ministry was formed; and the emperor, a notoriously inefficient person, was forced to abdicate (December 2, 1848) in favor of his youthful nephew, Francis Joseph I, who ruled as emperor until his death in 1916.

702. Suppression of the Hungarian Republic. A vigorous campaign was begun against Hungary, which, under the influence of the patriotic Kossuth, had deposed its Hapsburg king and declared itself an independent republic under the presidency of Kossuth. The Tsar placed his forces at the disposal of Francis Joseph; and with the aid of an army of one hundred and fifty thousand Russians, who marched in from the east, the Hungarians were compelled, by the middle of August, to surrender. Austria took terrible vengeance upon the rebels. Thousands were hanged, shot, and imprisoned, and many, including Kossuth, fled to the United States or elsewhere. But before many years Hungary won its independence by peaceful measures and became the equal of Austria in the dual federation, which from that time was officially known as Austria-Hungary (§ 719).

703. Austria reëstablishes the Former Conditions in Italy. Austria was soon able to reëstablish her power in Italy and to sweep away most of the reforms that had been gained. Charles Albert abdicated in favor of his son Victor Emmanuel II, who was destined before many years to become king of Italy.

704. Problems in forming a Constitution for Germany. In Germany, as elsewhere, Austria profited by the dissensions

among her opponents. On May 18, 1848, the National Assembly, consisting of nearly six hundred representatives of the German people, had met at Frankfurt (§ 698). It immediately began the consideration of a new constitution that should satisfy the old longings for a German state, to be governed by and for the people. But what were to be the confines of this new German state? There was no hesitation in deciding that all the Prussian territories should be admitted to the new union. As it appeared impossible to exclude Austria altogether, the assembly agreed to include those parts of her territory which had belonged to the confederation formed in 1815 (§ 650). This decision rendered the task of founding a strong German state practically impossible; for the new union would thus include two great European powers who might at any moment become rivals, since Prussia would hardly consent to be led forever by Austria.

FRANCIS JOSEPH AT HIS ACCESSION

Francis Joseph (1830–1916) witnessed the Revolution of 1848, at the age of eighteen, and the great war of 1914, at the age of eighty-four

705. Frederick William IV refuses to become Emperor. The new constitution provided that there should be a hereditary emperor at the head of the government, and that exalted office was tendered to the king of Prussia. Frederick William IV hated revolution. Moreover, he doubted whether the National Assembly had the right to confer the imperial title on him. He felt also that a war with Austria, which was likely to follow if

he accepted the crown, would be highly dangerous to Prussia. He therefore refused the honor which the Assembly offered him.

706. The German National Assembly Disperses; the Old Diet Restored. This decision made the year's work of the National Assembly fruitless. The hope of getting a better constitution for the German Confederation was given up, and the members of the Assembly dispersed. Austria now insisted upon the reëstablishment of the old diet, and Prussia submitted.

Francis Joseph in Later Life

707. Results of the Revolutions of 1848 in Prussia and Italy. While the revolutions of 1848 seem futile enough when viewed from the standpoint of the hopes of March, they left some important indications of progress.

The king of Prussia had granted his country a constitution, which, with some modifications, served Prussia down to the end of the World War. It provided for a ministry, but made it responsible to the king rather than to the parliament. The latter comprised a House of Lords—consisting of princes, nobles, life peers selected by the king, representatives of the universities, and burgomasters of the large towns—and a House of Deputies. All men over twenty-five years of age could vote for the electors, who in turn selected the deputies to the lower house, but the constitution carefully arranged to give the rich a predominating influence in the election.

Piedmont, which was to be the center of a new Italy, also obtained a constitution. We shall now follow the process by which a Prussian king founded the German Empire and the king of Sardinia became ruler of a united Italy.

QUESTIONS

I. Who were the Bourbons, and how did they come to reign both in France and in Spain? What was the Charter of 1814? Contrast Charles X with Louis XVIII. What were the causes of discontent with Louis Philippe's government? When and how was the Second Republic established? Why were the Socialists dissatisfied with the provisional government? Describe the experiment with the "national workshops" and its result. Give some of the causes that led to the reëlection of Louis Napoleon as president of the Second Republic. How did he succeed in reëstablishing the empire?

II. Why was Austria regarded as the greatest enemy of liberal government in Europe? Name some of her possessions. What effect did the overthrow of Metternich have on the liberals in Europe? Describe the struggle in Italy for independence. What were the difficulties in making any peaceful settlement in Austrian territories? Describe the effort to establish a republic in Hungary. What was the outcome of the revolution of 1848 in Italy? Discuss the problems involved in making a strong German state. What was the result of the Frankfurt Assembly? Why were the revolutions of 1848 unsuccessful?

CHAPTER XXXIII

CREATION OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE AND OF THE KINGDOM OF ITALY

I. How Prussia defeated Austria and founded the North German Federation

708. How Two New European Powers were formed. Among the most important events of the latter half of the nineteenth century was the consolidation of the two great modern states of Germany and Italy. We should recall how weak and divided both these countries had been during the Middle Ages, and how the German rulers had tried in vain to keep the various German countries under their control and at the same time incorporate Italy into the Holy Roman Empire. Both Germany and Italy fell apart for centuries into practically independent little principalities and city-states, often warring with one another and often dominated by foreign powers. In the sixteenth century, France, Austria, and Spain fought with one another over bits of Italian territory, and later Napoleon rearranged both countries to suit his taste. The Congress of Vienna left Italy divided, and assured Austria control over the northern portions. As for the German states, they were combined in a feeble union in which, as we have seen, Austria and Prussia, with all their bitter rivalries, were included.

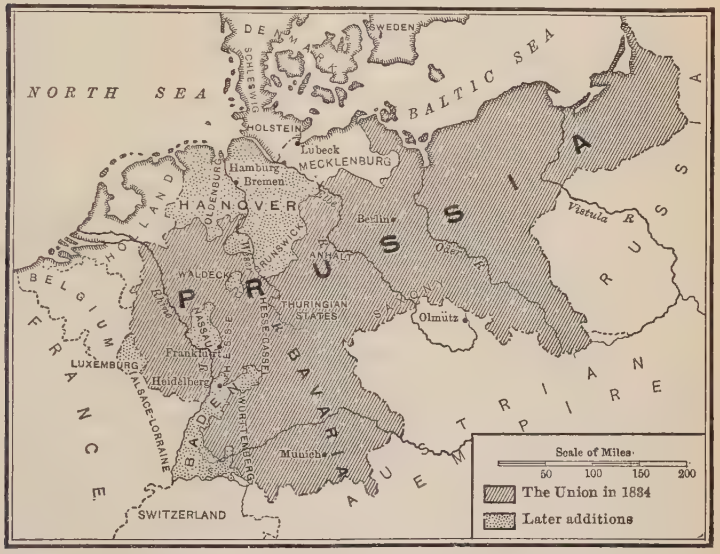
In spite of Metternich's efforts to maintain this situation, there were leaders in both Germany and Italy working for unification; and finally, after centuries of disunion, weakness, and foreign intervention, both countries were wrought into powerful states during the twelve years from 1859 to 1871. We must now see how all this came about.

709. Review of German History. All the efforts of the medieval emperors, from Otto the Great to Frederick Barbarossa (died, 1189), to unify Germany had proved vain (Chapter XV). Under the long line of Hapsburg emperors, from Rudolph of Hapsburg (died, 1291) to the last ruler of the Holy Roman Empire, Francis II, the German states became even more independent of one another than they had been in earlier centuries. Finally, the first step toward German unification was made by Napoleon when, under his auspices, many of the little states were swallowed up by the larger ones in 1803 and the following years (§§ 605 ff.). The old "Holy Roman Empire of the German nation" came to an end in 1806, and Germany was completely under French influence for several years. After Napoleon's downfall a loose union of the surviving states into which Germany had been consolidated was formed at the Congress of Vienna. The attempt of the constitutional assembly of Frankfurt in 1848–1849 to form a strong *democratic* empire under Prussia failed, because the king of Prussia refused to accept the crown, on the ground that the assembly had no right to offer it to him and that, should he accept it, he would, as he feared, become involved in a war with Austria, large portions of whose realms were to be excluded from the proposed union.

710. How the Industrial Revolution helped to unify Germany. Although Germany was destined to remain for some years longer only a group of loosely allied states, there were forces at work which were to unify Germany more effectually than any written constitution. These forces which were silently but surely welding the German people into a modern nation were the result of the Industrial Revolution. In 1835 the first railway had been built, and soon a great system of telegraph lines connected the most distant parts of the realm. The new machines which had been introduced by enterprising business men had so increased the output of manufacturers that they now looked about them to secure markets beyond the narrow compass of their own state, which had hitherto been large enough to take care of all they could produce. They soon found, how-

ever, that the customs duties which each separate state required to be paid before goods could enter its territory greatly interfered with any growth of business.

711. Prussia establishes a Customs Union. Had one traveled in a straight line from Fulda to Altenburg, towns some hundred and twenty-five English miles apart, he would on the way



THE GERMAN CUSTOMS UNION (ZOLLVEREIN)

have crossed thirty-four boundary lines and have been in the dominions of nine sovereign and independent monarchs. A merchants' association complained to the diet of the Confederation in 1819 that in order to trade from Hamburg to Austria, or from Berlin to Switzerland, one had to cross ten states, study ten different customs systems, and pay ten tariff charges. They called attention to the fact that a French merchant, on the contrary, could trade from the Rhine to the Pyrenees, and from Holland to Italy, without being troubled by a single collector of duties.

Prussia took the lead in remedying these evils by abolishing the customs lines which separated the different parts of her kingdom. By 1834 she had persuaded seventeen states to join her in a tariff union (*Zollverein*), which permitted the free passage of goods from one state to another, while the group as a whole was protected from outsiders by a common tariff boundary line. Later other German states found it to their advantage to join this union. As a popular writer of verse at the time expressed it, matches, cows, cheese, paper, ham, and boots had bound German hearts together better than any ties that had been made at the great Congress of Vienna.

712. William I of Prussia (1861–1888). With the accession of William I in 1858[1] a new era dawned for Prussia. An ambitious king came into power, whose great aim was to expel Austria from the German Confederation, and out of the remaining states to construct a firm union, under the domination of Prussia, which should take its place among the most important states of Europe. He saw that war would come sooner or later, and his first business was to strengthen his army.

713. The Prussian Army. The war of independence fought against Napoleon in 1813 had led the Prussian king to summon the whole nation to arms, and a law was passed in Prussia making service in the army obligatory upon every able-bodied male subject. The first thing that William I did was to increase the *annual* levy from forty to sixty thousand men and to see that all the soldiers remained in active service three years. They then passed into the reserve, according to the existing law, where for two years more they were ready at any time to take up arms, should it be necessary. William wished to increase the term of service in the reserve to four years. In this way the state would claim seven of the years of early manhood, and have an effective army of four hundred thousand without including men who were approaching middle life. According to the constitution which Prussia had got as a result of the Revolution of

[1] He ruled until 1861 as regent for his brother, Frederick William IV, who was incapacitated by disease.

1848 (§ 707), the house of representatives had a right to be consulted on spending the public money. This body now became an obstacle, for it refused to vote the necessary money for increasing the strength of the army.

714. Bismarck as Leader of Prussia (1862). The king proceeded, nevertheless, with his plan, and in 1862 called to his side Otto von Bismarck, a statesman well able to carry out that plan despite opposition. The new minister was a Prussian of the Prussians, and he dedicated his great abilities to the single object of Prussianizing all Germany. He believed firmly in the divine right of the Hohenzollern rulers; he hated parliaments and expressed contempt for the Liberal party, which had striven to create a democratic Germany in 1848. He had every confidence in the mailed fist and shining sword, by which he foresaw that he must gain his ends. He belonged to the highly conservative group of Prussian landed proprietors,—the so-called *Junkers*.

715. Four Items in Bismarck's Program. In order to raise Prussia to the position of a dominating European power, Bismarck perceived that four things were necessary: (1) The Prussian army must be greatly strengthened, for without that he could not hope to carry out his audacious program. (2) Austria, hitherto so influential in German affairs, must be excluded from Germany altogether, leaving the field to Prussia. (3) Prussian territory must be enlarged and consolidated by annexing those German states that separated the central possessions of the Hohenzollerns from their important holdings on the Rhine. (4) And, lastly, the large South German states, which disliked Prussia and suspected her motives, must in some way be induced to join a union under her headship.

The first obstacle that Bismarck met was the refusal of the lower house of the Prussian parliament to grant the money necessary for increasing the army. Bismarck frankly proclaimed, however, that the great questions of the time had to be decided "not by speeches and votes of majorities but by blood and iron." So he went on with his plan of strengthening the army without waiting for legal appropriations.

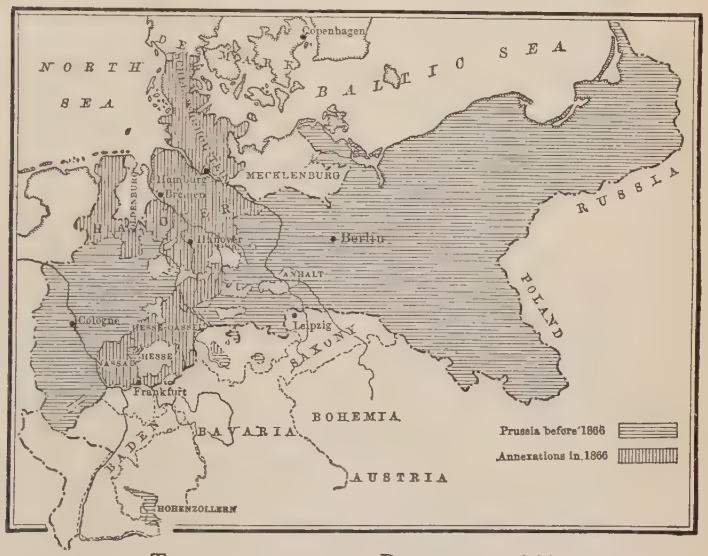
716. The Danish War of 1864. Bismarck found the following excuse for attacking Austria. South of Denmark there were two provinces, Schleswig and Holstein, which had for centuries been ruled by the Danish king, although they were inhabited largely by Germans and were not regarded as a part of Denmark. In 1863, in spite of the outcry in Germany, the king of Denmark decided to incorporate the provinces into his kingdom. Bismarck induced Austria to join Prussia in a war with Denmark (1864) and easily forced the Danish ruler to cede the provinces to his assailants *jointly*. Austria and Prussia disagreed as to the fate of the provinces. Bismarck was anxious to keep them under Prussian control. When Austria protested, he formed an alliance with the new kingdom of Italy (§ 728) and arranged that if Prussia should go to war with Austria, Italy should also attack her, with the hope of gaining Venetia. The plan was carried out. Austria tried to call out the troops of the German Confederation against Prussia, and Prussia thereupon declared the union of 1815 dissolved.

717. Speedy Victory of Prussia over Austria (1866). On June 12, 1866, Prussia formally declared war on Austria. Almost all the German rulers took sides against Prussia; but her powerful army was ready for immediate action, so that, in spite of the suspicion and even hatred which the Liberal party in Prussia entertained for the autocratic Bismarck, all resistance on the part of the states of the North was promptly prevented. Austria was defeated on July 3 in the decisive battle of Sadowa, and within three weeks after the breaking-off of diplomatic relations the war was practically over. The influence of Austria was at an end, and Prussia had proved her power to do with Germany as she pleased.

718. The North German Federation. Prussia was aware that the larger states south of the river Main were not ready for the union that she desired. She therefore organized a so-called North German Federation, which included all the states north of the river Main. Prussia had already grasped the opportunity to increase her own boundaries and round out her territory by

seizing the North German states, with the exception of Saxony, that had gone to war against her. Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and the free city of Frankfurt, along with the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, all were added to the kingdom of the Hohenzollerns.

719. Formation of the Austro-Hungarian Dual State. After Austria had been expelled from Germany in 1866, the relations



TERRITORY SEIZED BY PRUSSIA IN 1866

between the Austrian Empire and the kingdom of Hungary were adjusted by a compromise. Francis Joseph agreed to regard himself as ruling over two separate and practically independent states: (1) Austria, including seventeen provinces—Upper and Lower Austria, Bohemia, Moravia, Carinthia, and the rest; and (2) Hungary, including Croatia and Slavonia. Each of these two states had its own parliament,—one at Vienna, the other at Pest. But the dual state was to have one army, and a sort of joint parliament to manage the affairs common to both parts of the union (Map 25). In spite of a great deal of dis-

content on the part of the Slavic population,—both in Austria and in Hungary,—who resented the predominating position assumed by the German element in Austria and the Hungarian element in Hungary, this curious federation of two states lasted down until 1918, when it all fell to pieces as a result of the World War.

II. The Franco-Prussian War of 1870 and the Establishment of the German Empire

720. Disappointment of Napoleon III. No one was more disappointed by the abrupt termination of the war of 1866 and the speedy victory of Prussia than Napoleon III. He had hoped that the combatants might be weakened by a long struggle, and that at last he might have an opportunity to arbitrate, and perhaps to extend the boundaries of France. But Prussia came out of the conflict with greatly increased power and territory, while France had gained nothing. An effort of Napoleon's to get a foothold in Mexico had failed, owing to the recovery of the United States from the Civil War and to its warning that it should regard his continued intervention there as a hostile act.

721. How the Franco-Prussian War (1870–1871) Started. One course remained for the French emperor; namely, to permit himself to be led into a war with Prussia, which had especially roused the jealousy of France. The nominal pretext for hostilities was relatively unimportant. In 1869 Spain was without a king, and the crown was tendered to Leopold of Hohenzollern, a very distant relative of William I of Prussia. This greatly excited the Paris newspapers, for it seemed to them only an indirect way of bringing Spain under the influence of Prussia. The French minister of foreign affairs declared that the arrangement was an attempt to "reëstablish the empire of Charles V." In view of this opposition Leopold withdrew his acceptance of the Spanish crown early in July, 1870, and Europe believed the incident to be at an end. The French ministry, however, was not satisfied with this and demanded that the king of Prussia should pledge himself that the

plan should never be renewed. This William refused to do. Bismarck reported the affair in the German newspapers in such a way that it appeared as if the French ambassador had *insulted* King William. The Parisians at the same time received the impression that their ambassador had received an affront, and demanded an immediate declaration of war.

Bismarck eagerly encouraged war with France, for he believed that if the South German states were to unite under Prussia against a common enemy, they would later join the North German Federation. On the other hand, the hostility which the South German states had hitherto shown toward Prussia encouraged Napoleon III to believe that as soon as the French troops should gain their first victory Bavaria, Württemberg, and Baden would join him.

722. Victory of the Germans. That first French victory was never won. War had no sooner been declared than the Germans laid all jealousy aside and ranged themselves as a nation against France. The French army, moreover, was neither well equipped nor well commanded. The Germans hastened across the Rhine and in a few days were driving the French before them. In a series of bloody encounters about Metz one of the French armies was defeated, and finally shut up within the fortifications of the town. Seven weeks had not elapsed after the beginning of the war before the Germans had captured a second French army and made a prisoner of the emperor himself, Napoleon III, in the great battle of Sedan, September 1, 1870.

The Germans then laid siege to Paris. Napoleon III had been completely discredited by the disasters about Metz and at Sedan, and consequently the empire was abolished and France for the third time was declared a republic. In spite of the energy which the new government showed in arousing the French against the invaders, prolonged resistance was impossible. The French capital surrendered on January 28, 1871, an armistice was arranged, and the war was to all intents and purposes over.

723. Cession of Alsace and Lorraine, and the Indemnity. Bismarck humiliated France, in arranging the treaty of peace,

by requiring the cession of two French provinces—Alsace and northeastern Lorraine.[1] The Germans wished for a visible sign that they had had their revenge on the French. Many of the Alsatians, it is true, spoke a German dialect, but the provinces had little desire to become a part of the German Empire.

The Germans exacted a heavy war indemnity from France—a billion dollars—and proclaimed that German troops would remain in France until the sum was paid. The French people made great sacrifices to hasten the payment of the indemnity, in order to free their country from the presence of the detested "Prussians." The bitter feeling between France and Germany dates from this war. The humiliation of the French over their "lost provinces," and the suspicions of the Germans that the French were planning revenge, not only prevented the nations from becoming friends but had much to do with the sudden attack which Germany made on France in August, 1914. The fate of Alsace-Lorraine was one of the issues of the World War.

724. Proclamation of the German Empire (January 18, 1871). The war between France and Prussia in 1870, instead of hindering the development of Germany, as Napoleon III had hoped it would, only served to complete the work of 1866. The South German states,—Bavaria, Württemberg, Baden, and South Hesse,—having sent their troops to fight side by side with the Prussian forces, consented after their common victory over France to join the North German Federation. Surrounded by the German princes, William, king of Prussia and president of the North German Federation, was proclaimed German Emperor in the palace of Versailles, January, 1871. In this way the German Empire came into existence. With its victorious army and its wily chancellor, Bismarck, it immediately took an important place among the Western powers of Europe and sought to increase its power.

[1] Alsace had, with certain exceptions,—especially as regards Strasbourg and the other free towns,—been ceded to the French king by the Treaty of Westphalia (§ 386). During the reign of Louis XIV all of Alsace had been seized by France (1681). The duchy of Lorraine had upon the death of its last duke fallen to France, in 1766.

View of Venice

III. Founding of the Kingdom of Italy

725. Early Efforts to unify Italy: Mazzini and Young Italy. After the Congress of Vienna leaders arose in Italy who strove to free their land from foreign domination and unite the various states into a single powerful country. There were unsuccessful revolutions in 1820–1821, in 1830, and, as we have seen, in 1848–1849. Among these leaders Mazzini, the poet and man of letters, was the most famous, and exercised great influence through his writings.

He founded an association called "Young Italy," whose members were to devote themselves to the cause of Italian unity. Mazzini believed that Italy should be a united republic and that in order to reach this goal the young men of Italy should be educated in republican ideals instead of being allowed to depend upon any of the Italian princes or the intervention of foreign powers. Although Italy did not become a republic, the loyalty and enthusiasm which Mazzini awakened aided the king of Sardinia and his able minister, Cavour, to realize at last the dreams of the Italian patriots.

726. How Napoleon III intervened in Italian Affairs. The kingdom of Sardinia consisted mainly of Piedmont and the neighboring Savoy in northwestern Italy and had its capital at Turin; the island of Sardinia was a very unimportant part of the ruler's realms. After the unsuccessful war with Austria in 1848–1849 (§§ 699, 707) the country had been reorganized under a new constitution and became the nucleus around which all Italy might unite.

This new constitution was maintained by Victor Emmanuel II when he came to the throne in 1849. In 1852 Count Cavour was selected as prime minister, and it was largely through him that the reforms took place which finally established Italy's independence. Cavour was greatly impressed with the progress which he observed in France and England. He proposed a great system of railways to bind all parts of the peninsula together, encouraged manufacture and trade by arranging a

number of treaties with other countries, and increased the size and improved the discipline of the army. Cavour did not sympathize with Mazzini's idea that Italy should try to achieve its independence without foreign help. He declared that "whether we like it or not, our destinies depend upon France." Cavour easily induced Napoleon III to agree to lend

Map of Unification of Italy

his help if a new excuse could be found for attacking Austria and expelling her from northern Italy. Napoleon argued that since the Italians were a Latin race, like the French, a successful war against the German Austrians would be popular in France and would make his own position stronger. He also hoped he might add Savoy to France and perhaps become the protector of the proposed Italian confederation.

727. Abrupt Close of the War of 1859. Victor Emmanuel arranged easily enough to fall out with Austria and was imme-

diately reënforced by a French army. Austria managed the campaign badly and was defeated, June, 1859, in the fierce battles of Magenta and Solferino. But Napoleon was appalled by the horrors of actual war and seemingly startled at the enthusiasm aroused among the Italians, which he feared might result in so powerful an Italy that he would no longer be desired as protector. Consequently he left his work half done. Instead of freeing Italy to the Adriatic, as he had talked of doing, he arranged a peace with Austria by which she still held Venetia, but ceded Lombardy to Victor Emmanuel. It was also arranged that France should be rewarded for its trouble by receiving Savoy and Nice, in which the people were French rather than Italian.

GARIBALDI

Garibaldi shares with Victor Emmanuel the national enthusiasm of Italy, and his monument, one of the finest in Rome, looks proudly over the Eternal City from a high hill. He was a republican, a convert of Mazzini, and had lived a restless life, having fought in South America and lived for a time in New York (where his house is preserved as a memorial). At the head of his "legion" of volunteers, clad in their gay red blouses, he was a most picturesque figure, and his rapid success in southern Italy lent an element of romance to the unification of his country

728. Formation of a Kingdom of Italy (1860). Napoleon III had, however, precipitated changes which he was powerless to check. Italy was now ready to fuse into a single state. Tuscany, as well as Modena and Parma, voted (March, 1860) to unite with Piedmont. Giuseppe Garibaldi, a famous republican leader, sailed for Sicily, where he assumed the dictatorship of the island in the name of Victor Emmanuel, "King of Italy." After expelling the troops

of the king of Naples from Sicily, he crossed to the mainland, and early in September he entered Naples itself, just as the Bourbon king fled from his capital.

729. Napoleon III prevents the Annexation of Rome. Garibaldi now proposed to march on Rome and proclaim the kingdom of Italy. This would have imperiled all the previous gains, for Napoleon III could not, in view of the strong Catholic sentiment in France, possibly permit the occupation of Rome and the destruction of the political independence of the Pope. He agreed that Victor Emmanuel might annex the outlying papal possessions to the north and reëstablish a stable government in Naples instead of Garibaldi's dictatorship. But Rome, the imperial city, with the territory immediately surrounding it, must be left to its old ruler, the Pope. Victor Emmanuel accordingly marched southward and occupied Naples in October, 1860. The king of Naples surrendered, and all southern Italy became a part of the kingdom of Italy.

730. Italian Unification only Partial. In February, 1861, the first Italian parliament was opened at Turin, Victor Emmanuel was proclaimed king of Italy, and the process of really consolidating the various portions of the new kingdom began. Yet the joy of the Italians over the realization of their hopes of unity and national independence was tempered by the fact that Austria still held one of the most famous of the Italian provinces, Venetia, and that Rome, which typified Italy's former grandeur, was not included in the new kingdom. Within a decade, however, both these districts became a part of the kingdom of Italy, owing this time to the policy of Prussia and not that of France.

IV. The Final Unification of Italy

731. Rome added to the Kingdom of Italy (1870). The unification of Italy was completed, like that of Germany, by the Franco-Prussian War of 1870. It will be remembered that the new kingdom of Italy allied itself with Prussia (§ 716) in

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MONUMENT TO VICTOR EMMANUEL II, AT ROME

The most imposing monument in Europe, erected to commemorate the unification of Italy. A colossal statue of Victor Emmanuel adorns the center. The Forum of ancient Rome lies just behind

an attack on Austria in 1866. Although Italy was not very successful in this war, Austria was so badly defeated by Prussia that she was forced at last to give up her hold on Venetia, which was now added to the new Italian kingdom.

Rome and the surrounding district still remained outside the control of the king of Italy. Napoleon III had sent French troops to protect the remaining papal territory from any attack on the part of the Italians. Four years later, however, when France became involved in the war with Prussia, she was compelled to recall her troops. The king thereupon invited the Pope to make terms with the Italian government. This Pius IX refused to do, and an Italian army occupied the city of Rome in September, 1870. The people of Rome voted by an overwhelming majority to join the kingdom of Italy, and the work of Victor Emmanuel and Cavour was completed by transferring the capital to the Eternal City.

732. Position of the Pope. Although the papal possessions were incorporated into the kingdom of Italy, a law was passed which guaranteed to the Pope the rank and privileges of a sovereign prince. As head of the Church the Pope was to be entirely independent of the king of Italy. A sum of over six hundred thousand dollars annually was also appropriated to aid the Pope in defraying his expenses. He, however, refused to recognize the arrangement, regarding himself as a prisoner and the Italian government as a usurper who had robbed him of his possessions.

733. Italy becomes a European Power. In order to maintain the dignity of her new position Italy rapidly increased her army and navy. Universal military service was introduced as in other European states, and modern warships were built. Then the Italians set about gaining colonies in Africa, and in 1887 sent an army into Abyssinia; but after some fifteen years of intermittent warfare they were able to retain only a strip along the coast of the Red Sea about twice the size of the state of Pennsylvania. Later, in 1911, by a war with Turkey, they took Tripoli on the south shore of the Mediterranean (§ 933).

THE PAPAL GARDENS AT THE VATICAN, ROME

These few acres, along with a summer residence which the popes never use, and the two churches of the Vatican and the Lateran in Rome, were all that was left of the Pope's former realms in 1870

734. Emigration from Italy. The cost of armaments made Italy almost bankrupt at times, and, as it was not a rich country, taxes were very high. Since these fell largely upon the poor, hundreds of thousands of Italians left their land as emigrants, preferring the United States or Argentina to their own colonies. Nevertheless, much of the revenue was spent on things other than armaments. Railroads were built by the State to open up the country. Manufactures grew up in the northern part, so that Milan became one of the great manufacturing cities of Europe. National schools brought improvement in education, although the peasants in the mountainous districts were still very ignorant and superstitious.

Victor Emmanuel II died in 1878. His son, King Humbert, was assassinated by an anarchist in 1900, and was succeeded by his son, Victor Emmanuel III. The monarchy was in form and practice much like that of England until the coming into power of the Fascisti party, whose leader, Benito Mussolini, in 1923, assumed the rôle of a dictator, although nominally the premier (§ 1066).

QUESTIONS

I. Why is Germany called the youngest of the European powers? How did the unification of Germany really begin? Why did Prussia play such an important rôle in Germany? What was the policy of William I and Bismarck? What do you know of the German army? What had the Schleswig-Holstein affair to do with the war of 1866? What was the North German Federation?

II. How did France become involved in war with Germany in 1870? What was the course of the war? What were the terms of peace? Why did these prove disastrous not only to Germany but to the world at large? How did the final unification of Germany take place?

III. Review briefly the history of Italy from the break-up of the Roman Empire to 1859. What was the importance of Sardinia in Italy? Why was Napoleon III ready to intervene in Italian affairs? What was the result of his intervention? How was the kingdom of Italy founded, and what Italian territories were not included in the union of 1861?

IV. When and how was Italy finally unified? What is the position of the Pope? Why did so many Italians emigrate to America?

CHAPTER XXXIV

THE GERMAN EMPIRE AND THE THIRD FRENCH REPUBLIC

I. Development of Germany (1871–1914)

735. Predominance of Prussia in the German Empire. In the North German Federation of 1866 Prussia, with the German states she had just seized, constituted nearly the whole union. After the South German states joined the federation and so formed the German Empire, Prussia still comprised nearly *two thirds* of the whole empire, and her citizens amounted to nearly *two thirds* of the entire population of Germany.

We may be sure that Bismarck, with his Prussian autocratic ideas and his confidence in armies and kings, would see to it that the new constitution for the empire insured the control of Germany by Prussia and the Junker class (§ 632), to which he himself belonged. The dominating position of Prussia and her king was so cleverly disguised that it sometimes seemed to escape the Germans themselves.

736. Powers of the Kaiser. The "presidency" of the empire was vested in the king of Prussia; but he was not, in theory, the monarch of Germany, in spite of his august title of "Emperor" (*Kaiser*). Emperor William II (1888–1918), it is true, always talked as if he ruled by the grace of God, but he had no constitutional right to such a claim. He did, however, according to Prussian law, rule Prussians by "divine right," and they, as we have seen, constituted a great part of the German people. The emperor did not have a right directly to veto the measures passed by the German parliament, but he exercised many of the powers which would fall to an absolute monarch. He appointed and dismissed the chancellor of the empire, who was, with his "all-highest" self, the chief official spokesman of Germany.

The kaiser commanded the unconditional obedience of all German soldiers and sailors and appointed the chief officers in the army and navy.

737. The Bundesrat. The real sovereignty, however, according to the constitution, was vested in the whole body of the German rulers included in the union, and was exercised by the Federal Council, or *Bundesrat*, to which the various governments sent their representatives. This council enjoyed more powers than the Senate of the United States or any other upper house in Europe. It initiated the important laws and was presided over by the imperial chancellor. Prussia's influence in it was secured by assigning her king a sufficient number of votes to enable him to defeat any measure he wished.

738. The Reichstag. The House of Representatives, or *Reichstag*, consisting of about four hundred members, was elected by universal male suffrage for a term of five years. The emperor, however, might dissolve it at any time with the consent of the Bundesrat, and did so on occasions when it refused to pass the measures of his ministers. It exercised much less control of the government than does the British House of Commons or the United States House of Representatives. Moreover, it did not fairly represent the people in the rapidly growing cities. Berlin, for instance, increased to two million inhabitants; but it had only six members, whereas it was entitled by its size to twenty. The government, however, refused to readjust the representation for fear the Socialists would gain more members.

739. Laws establishing Uniformity throughout Germany. The constitution gave the federal government power to regulate commerce, railways, telegraphs, currency, and the criminal and civil law. Under Bismarck the old systems of the various states were largely replaced by uniform regulations. The bewildering variety of coins and paper money in the several states was done away with, and the mark (normally worth about twenty-five cents) became the basis for the currency of the whole empire. A tariff system was introduced to protect the entire country from foreign competition and encourage home industries. So it will

be seen that Germany rapidly became a remarkably well-organized and powerful state, with little resemblance to the weak and distracted old Holy Roman Empire out of which it had grown.

740. Bismarck and the Socialists. The Industrial Revolution did not get fully under way in Germany until after the middle of the nineteenth century, but in the period we are describing Germany was undergoing a rapid and profound change. Large manufacturing towns sprang up; railways were built; and the working classes began to feel themselves in need of defense against the power of the new factory owners. Socialism developed here as elsewhere as a result of the new conditions of manufacture. In addition to the formation of labor unions a new political party appeared, known as the Social Democratic Labor party, which based its platform upon the teachings of Karl Marx.

Bismarck grew alarmed; and in 1878 a law was passed to suppress socialistic agitation, and leading Socialists were imprisoned. They continued their secret propaganda, however, and Bismarck decided that to allay discontent the government should introduce certain socialistic measures of its own accord.

741. State Socialism in Germany. Bismarck was not opposed to having the government own and operate railroads and mines and conserve the natural resources; so it came about that the state-owned property in Germany amounted to about seven billion dollars before the World War and brought in an income of about three hundred million dollars. The federal government arranged also a system of insurance for workingmen against accident and sickness and required the employers to contribute to the expense. Similar laws were later passed to protect workmen against destitution on account of old age or incapacity to work. In 1913 over twenty-five million persons were insured under these laws.

This did not seem *real* socialism to the Socialists, but suggested, rather, more of the old paternalism familiar to Prussia in the time of Frederick the Great. The existing capitalistic system of production was in no way affected by State socialism,

and the workers themselves enjoyed no more influence over industry than they had previously. It was the State, not they, that gained control.

742. Accession of William II (1888). Kaiser William I, who, with Bismarck's help, had founded and developed the German Empire, died in 1888, full of years and honor. He was succeeded by his grandson,[1] the "kaiser" of the World War, William II. Bismarck did not get along well with the arrogant new ruler, and resigned in 1890. The kaiser chose new chancellors from time to time, but none of them exhibited the capacity of the "iron chancellor," as Bismarck was called.

DROPPING THE PILOT

From a cartoon in *Punch*, 1890, by Sir John Tenniel

743. German Colonies. United Germany, like united Italy, embarked upon a colonial policy. In the later years of Bismarck's administration the Germans got control of large provinces (Togo and Cameroons) on the western coast of Africa. Moreover, they carved out a protectorate called German Southwest Africa, far larger than the whole area of the German Empire; and they established themselves in German East Africa, which was even more extensive.

[1] William II's father, Frederick, lived for only a few months after the death of the "old kaiser." The new kaiser was a grandson of Queen Victoria of England and spoke and wrote English excellently.

But few Germans cared to emigrate to the new colonies, and the enterprise cannot be said to have paid very well. In 1897 the Germans seized the port of Kiaochow in China and began to exhibit great jealousy in regard to the colonial expansion of England and France. When the World War began, Germany speedily lost all her colonies.

744. Growth of Germany in Numbers and Wealth. During the reign of William II Germany grew rapidly in wealth and population. The population in 1870 was about 40,000,000; in 1914 it was almost 68,000,000, a larger increase than occurred in any other country in western Europe. Vast new cities grew up; old ones widened their narrow streets, destroyed their slums, and spread out along miles of boulevards as new as those of Chicago. German steamship lines, heavily subsidized by the government, developed rapidly, and their vessels were soon sailing on every sea. The farmers and manufacturers flourished, owing to their new markets throughout the world opened by the new German merchant marine. Workmen stopped emigrating to the United States and South America, because times were good at home, and it was easy to get enough to do.

745. German Business Men controlled by the State. Individual Englishmen and individual English companies had built up England's world commerce. But German business men were generally backed by the German government, which put its power and money at their disposal. So they did not work simply for themselves, but the State saw to it that they worked for the aggrandizement of the German government.

From a relatively poor country in 1871 Germany became rich and powerful. Although the Germans were well treated by all other nations, including England and France, they felt that they were surrounded on all sides by an "iron ring" of enemies. When by peaceful means they were becoming a highly important commercial nation, they began to denounce England as a pirate and to talk of making "a place in the sun" for themselves by crushing her as their chief enemy and becoming the foremost world power.

746. The Germans taught to revere the State and its Officials. Few imagined that the old Prussian spirit of the Great Elector, Frederick the Great, and Bismarck, and the talk of Fichte and other German philosophers, historians, and economists about German superiority, would lead to an armed attempt to put the theories into practice. Nevertheless this happened. The German conception of the State was quite different from that which prevails in democratic countries. Lincoln once defined democracy as "the government of the people, by the people, for the people." But in Germany the people were taught by their officials that the State is something more precious than the interests of all those who compose it. It was the duty of the people not to control the State in their own interest, but to obey the government officials and believe what the government told them. There was no large liberal party in Germany to oppose ancient Prussian despotism and militarism. The Social Democrats, it is true, often talked against autocracy and militarism; but few of them stood out against the war spirit in 1914.

II. The Third French Republic (1871–1914)

747. Insurrection of the Paris Commune of 1871. When the news reached Paris of the surrender of Napoleon at Sedan, a group of Republicans at once proclaimed a republic. A provisional government was hastily set up to carry on the war; and when the conflict was over, a National Assembly was elected, in February, 1871, to make peace with Germany. But peace was hardly made before this temporary government was called upon to subdue an insurrection of the Parisian populace. The insurgents were afraid that the Assembly, which was composed largely of Royalists, wished to reëstablish monarchy; so they organized a city government like the Commune of the Revolution (§ 561) and prepared to defend Paris against the national troops. The struggle that followed was terrible. The rebels were guilty of atrocities, such as the murder of the archbishop

PARIS

of Paris and other prisoners, and the army which was sent against them gave them no quarter. After two months of disorder the forces of the Commune were completely routed in a series of bloody street fights. The victorious government showed no mercy: hundreds were shot after hasty trial, and the rebellion was put down in blood. More persons were killed than in the whole Reign of Terror.

748. Surprisingly Rapid Recovery of France. The National Assembly, under the presidency of the veteran statesman Thiers, then proceeded to get rid of the German garrisons by paying the huge indemnity to Germany. To the surprise of everyone, France paid the five billion francs in three years, and the country gradually recovered from the demoralization caused by the war. France also reorganized its army, requiring every Frenchman to serve five years in the active army and fifteen in the reserve. This was gradually reduced to two years' active service and eleven years in the reserve.

749. Failure of the Monarchists to establish a Kingdom. The National Assembly had the further task of drawing up a constitution for France. There was much uncertainty for several years as to just what form the constitution would permanently take.

The monarchical party naturally fell into two groups. One, the so-called *Legitimists*, believed that the elder Bourbon line, to which Louis XVI and Charles X had belonged, should be restored in the person of the count of Chambord, a grandson of Charles X (Table XI). The *Orleanists*, on the other hand, wished the grandson of Louis Philippe, the count of Paris, to be king. In 1873 the Orleanists agreed to help the count of Chambord to the throne as Henry V; but that prince frustrated the plan by refusing to accept the national colors,—red, white, and blue,—which had become so endeared to the nation that it appeared dangerous to exchange them for the ancient white flag of the Bourbons.

750. Constitution of the French Republic. As a result of these differences between the monarchists, those who favored a re-

public finally prevailed; and in 1875 the Assembly passed a series of three laws organizing the government. These have since served France as a constitution. The president is elected for seven years by both Senate and Chamber of Deputies meeting together. The real head of the government, however, is the prime minister. He and the other ministers form a cabinet, responsible to parliament, as in England.

The parliament of France differs from the Congress of the United States or the Parliament of Great Britain (until very recently) in the way it works. Instead of having two great parties, there are about ten groups of members, each representing certain ideas. A few Monarchists still sit on the seats at the extreme right of the speaker's desk, or tribune. Next to them sit very conservative Republicans. The largest group is that of the Radicals, or reformers, while at the left are a number of Socialists, representing the working classes. The cabinet in order to continue in power must have the support of a majority in the Chamber of Deputies, as the house of representatives is called. This is elected every four years by universal male suffrage. When the cabinet loses the confidence of the Chamber of Deputies it resigns, and the president appoints a new prime minister. It is his task to form a new cabinet whose policy promises to win the favor of the Chamber. The Senate is elected for nine years by a more complicated system—one hundred being elected every third year—and tends to be more conservative than the Chamber.

751. The Republic and the Church. The Catholic clergy from the first had been hostile to the Republic, for the Republicans stood for such things as a national public-school system free from Church control, for liberty of the press, and for other ideas which seemed to be undermining the authority of the Church. A public-school system was established in which clergymen were forbidden to teach; and the private schools, which had been run mainly by religious orders, were placed under strict government inspection. As the monastic orders opposed the carrying out of such laws, which they regarded as persecution, parlia-

ment finally closed their schools and forced the religious orders to disband. As a result many monks and nuns left France.

752. Separation of Church and State. The next step was more far-reaching. By the treaty, or "Concordat," of 1801, between Napoleon and the Pope, the bishops were appointed by the government, and the salaries of all the clergy were paid by the State.[1] The clergy, therefore,—naturally a very influential class because of their religious duties,—were in a sense government officials as well as clergymen.

Many of the Republicans had ceased to believe in what the Church taught, and finally a law was passed, in 1905, to separate Church and State in France. The government stopped the State contributions to the clergy, but placed the churches and their furniture at the disposal of the priests. On the other hand, in order to punish the clergy for refusing to accept the new arrangement, palaces of bishops and theological seminaries were turned into schools and hospitals. The Catholic Church in France is now dependent, as are all churches in America, upon the voluntary contributions of those who are interested in supporting them.

753. Progress during the Third Republic. France under the Third Republic steadily advanced in wealth, the French people being noted for their thrift and economy. The savings of French peasants enabled the great banks to lend money to other nations, particularly Russia, so that Paris came to rival London and New York as a money center.

754. Educational Reform. A system of national education was introduced through the efforts of Jules Ferry. The French realized that if democracy was to be successful, the mass of the people must be able to take an intelligent part in affairs and to make the right use of the privilege of voting. By a series of laws education was made compulsory and free and was placed under government control. The government granted large sums

[1] Before the Revolution the clergy had derived their support from the vast possessions of the Church and from the tithes (§§ 507, 527). This system was done away with during the Revolution (§§ 551, 596).

of money to carry on the classes, and normal schools for the training of teachers were also established.

755. The *Syndicats*, or Trade Unions. France has been somewhat slower than Germany and England in adopting governmental measures for improving the condition of workingmen, although in recent years it has perfected many plans for social insurance. The slowness with which it has taken up these ideas is due mainly to the fact that the peasants and the richer classes can combine to control a majority of votes in the parliament; and as they derive little benefit from such laws and have, at the same time, to pay most of the taxes, they are inclined to refuse to make the necessary appropriations.

The result of this has been that the working classes in the cities ceased to hope for very much help by way of new laws passed to promote their interests. Although they continued to send Socialists to represent them in parliament, they relied rather upon trade unions. These are called *syndicats* by the French; and the more determined of these unions propose to win their way by strikes until they can force the capitalists to meet their demands. Such a method of attack upon employers is known as "syndicalism," or "direct action."

756. Colonial Expansion. In spite of recurring troubles of this kind, France nevertheless prospered, especially in the period just before the World War. Its policy of expansion in Africa and Asia, which involved it in trouble with Germany, we shall consider later.

The French had earlier conquered Algeria and made settlements on the western coast of Africa. After the Franco-Prussian War there was still greater activity and interest in securing colonies. By looking at Map 23 it will be seen that France finally succeeded in carving out an empire in Africa many times her size. The exports and imports from these colonies represented a business of millions of dollars. France also acquired a large territory lying between India and China, usually called French Indo-China.

QUESTIONS

I. How did the North German Federation grow into the German Empire? What were the powers of the kaiser? Contrast the position of the Bundesrat with that of the United States Senate. Describe the Reichstag. What important reforms did the federal system bring to Germany? Why did socialism appear in Germany at about the period of unification? What was Bismarck's "State socialism"? Describe the growth of Germany since unification. Describe German commercial methods. How are Germans taught to view the State?

II. How did the present French Republic originate? What events in Paris in 1870 suggest the Reign of Terror? What is the nature of the present French constitution? What parties existed in France after 1871? Review the main changes in the form of the French government since the assembling of the Estates General in 1789. Why was the Church against the Republic? What did the Church lose when the Concordat was ended? What are the ideas of the syndicalists?

CHAPTER XXXV

GREAT BRITAIN AND HER EMPIRE

I. The British Constitution

757. Great Importance of Written Constitutions. Since the United States adopted its present Constitution (in 1789), and since France (two years later) completed its first constitution, there has been a general feeling that a written document plainly setting forth the way in which the government should be organized, who should be permitted to vote, and what powers the government might exercise, was essential to a *free* nation; hence, from the French Revolution onward, almost all liberal movements have been directed toward securing, in the first place, a constitution. As we have seen, written constitutions were an important issue all through the nineteenth century. They were supposed to set a limit to the despotism of *government*, whether by king or parliament, and to give the people—or at least part of them—a means of expressing their will in the making of laws and the management of the country.

758. The Unwritten Constitution of England. Strangely enough, England, who has rightly been called "the mother of constitutions," has never had a *written* constitution; but from the time of Edward I (1272–1307), over six hundred years ago, it has had an *unwritten* constitution which has served as the model for almost all modern constitutions, not only in Europe but even in far-distant lands, such as Japan or Santo Domingo. The idea of a parliament of two houses (one representing the so-called higher classes, the other the people at large), and a "cabinet" to advise the head of the State, whether he be a king or a president, all come from England. Then it was a British idea to draw up various bills of rights, such

as the bill appended to our Constitution, in which the things that government *should not do* are clearly stated in order to fend off tyranny and oppression. Examples of such lists of limitations on the powers of the English government are found in the Great Charter; the Petition of Right (1628), directed against the schemes of Charles I; the Bill of Rights (1689); the Toleration Act (1689); and so forth,—all of which are regarded as important parts of the constitution of England. Then there are all sorts of laws formerly passed by Parliament, and various precedents, court decisions, and old, sanctified customs and habits, which go to make up the English constitution. So, although a good deal has from time to time been written out, it has never been brought together into a single document like the Constitution of the United States or that of Italy, but is constantly being modified to meet new conditions. We must now consider the English governmental system of a parliament of two houses and a cabinet—a committee which runs the government so long as it keeps the confidence of the Parliament and the people.

759. How Party Government grew up. Before the seventeenth century there were no political *parties* in England, although the members of Parliament naturally took sides on various questions that came up. But during the struggle between the Stuart kings and Parliament (§§ 401 ff.), two groups arose, one of which believed that a strong monarch was most likely to promote peace and prosperity in the United Kingdom, while the other had no confidence in a powerful king and was eager to get the control of the government into the hands of an elected body of representatives of the people—namely, the Parliament. It will be remembered that the supporters of Charles I were called Cavaliers and the parliamentary party, Roundheads.

After the period of civil war the power and importance of Parliament had developed to such an extent as to encourage the formation of permanent *parties* which adhered to certain beliefs or principles, and which sought to gain sufficient support to control Parliament. The successors of the Cavaliers were called *Tories* and the successors of the Roundheads, who

had overthrown the Stuarts and obtained the Bill of Rights on the accession of William and Mary (§ 410), were called *Whigs*.

These strange names were at first terms of contempt applied to the parties by their opponents. Those who wished to maintain the authority of the king and of the Established Church were scornfully referred to by their enemies as Tories, the name given to Irish outlaws who were royalist in sympathy. The parliamentary party were contemptuously called Whigs, an abbreviation of Whiggamores, the name given to a group of Scotch dissenters who had rebelled against the king. These abusive names clung to the parties and were used seriously long after their origin was forgotten. Later, the Tories came to be called *Conservatives* and the Whigs, *Liberals*.[1]

The party that can control the majority of votes in the House of Commons claims the right to manage the government of the country as long as it retains its majority, for it is believed that this party represents most nearly the will of the nation. The leader of the party in power is accepted by the monarch as his *prime minister*, or *premier*. He and his associates form a *cabinet* which for the time is the real ruler of the British Empire.

760. The Cabinet and Parliament. The device of cabinet government under a premier was put into operation in the time of George I (1714–1727), a German who was unable to speak English and did not attend the meetings of the ministers.

Since none of Queen Anne's children survived her (§ 412), she was succeeded, according to an arrangement made before she came to the throne, by the nearest heir who was a Protestant. This turned out to be a German cousin, the son of James I's granddaughter Sophia (Table VIII).[2] As the new

[1] The Labor party, which has come into prominence in our own day, did not arise until long after the other two parties.

[2] Sophia had married the elector of Hanover (Table VIII); consequently her son, the new king of England, was elector of Hanover and a member of the Holy Roman Empire. It is interesting to note that the English people who had had in William the Conqueror and Henry II (Table I) rulers who were Norman French, and later had invited a Dutch ruler, William of Orange, to be their king as William III (Table VIII), now had a German monarch.

king, who took the title of George I, did not speak English and his ministers did not know German, all their transactions had to be carried on in Latin, spoken badly and with great difficulty on both sides. The little group of ministers, or *cabinet*, therefore got into the habit of holding its sessions and reaching its decisions without the presence of the king. The leading minister of the little committee came to preside in the king's place, and in this way the office of *prime* (or first) minister developed.

Since the House of Commons will not vote the money necessary to carry on the government after it has lost confidence in the cabinet, the cabinet has to resign as soon as it is convinced by the defeat of any of its measures that it no longer controls a majority of votes. The king then appoints the leader of the *opposition* party as premier and asks him to form a cabinet. It may happen, however, that the defeated cabinet believes the country is on its side. In this case it will ask the king to dissolve Parliament and have a new election, with the hope that it will gain a majority in that way by the election of new members who are favorable to it. So it is clear that the cabinet regards itself as responsible not merely to Parliament but to the nation at large.

761. Parliament responsible to the Nation. As the members of the House of Commons are not elected for a definite term of years (though, according to a law passed in 1911, a new general election must be held *at least* every five years), that body may be dissolved at any time for the purpose of giving the people a chance to express its wishes on any important issue. It is thus clear that the British government is more sensitive to public opinion than are governments where the members of the legislatures are chosen for a definite number of years and fill out their term of office regardless of the success and general approval which they meet.

762. Need for Reform of Parliament. Parliament at the beginning of the nineteenth century did not, however, represent the people at large. In the first place, although the Tory party

PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS

included the large landholders and the clergy, and the Whig party many of the liberal-minded nobles as well as the merchants, factory owners, and shopkeepers, the great working population in the towns and the country still had no part in the government. Indeed, until the middle of the nineteenth century there were only two and a half million voters out of a population of thirty-two millions. Parliament was, after all, a council of wealthy landowners, nobles, and successful business men, who ran the government for their own benefit and were strongly opposed to extending the privilege of voting to other classes.

In the second place, in addition to the restrictions on voting which kept the largest part of the people from electing representatives to Parliament, the apportionment of members was not properly arranged throughout the kingdom. No new distribution of seats had been made to meet the changes which had taken place in several hundred years, and the towns which had formerly been summoned by the king to send two representatives to Parliament (§ 258) continued to do so, no matter how they had shrunk in size. Other cities, like Manchester, Leeds, and Birmingham, which had grown up as the result of the Industrial Revolution, had no representatives at all, for no new boroughs (districts sending representatives to Parliament) had been added to the list since the time of Charles II. Moreover, many of the boroughs were owned by members of the House of Lords, so that these seats in the House of Commons were really controlled by lords. This led to much open bribery in the purchasing of seats in the House of Commons.

These evils and unfairnesses were the subject of much agitation in the nineteenth century. The period following the wars with France was one of hard times in England: the expenses of war had raised the taxes; manufacture and trade had fallen off; food was high; and there was much unemployment. People began to look around for some explanation and, if possible, some remedy for this bad situation; and there began to be an active demand for a reform of Parliament as the cure for all the

troubles of the time. The Tory party, which had the majority in Parliament, was opposed to every kind of reform, and there was much hard feeling.

At last this attitude brought about the defeat of the Tories in 1830 and the election of the Whigs to power. In 1832 a bill was passed, after much opposition from the conservatives, which deprived the so-called "rotten boroughs" (or those which had few inhabitants and sometimes none) of the right to be represented in Parliament, and reduced the number of representatives which could be elected from the small districts, giving at the same time a larger number of representatives to the towns with greater population, and creating forty-three new boroughs. It also reduced the property qualifications so that a greater number of persons could vote, although nearly all workingmen and farm hands were still excluded.

763. The Chartist Movement. The reformers were not satisfied with these changes, so they drew up a *charter* and presented it as a petition to Parliament, demanding, among other things, that all men be permitted to vote, that the balloting be secret, and that the members of the House of Commons should be paid, so that poor men might afford to accept seats in that body. These "Chartists," as the reformers were called, organized great parades to give publicity to the petition, and claimed to have got over a million signatures to the charter. Parliament paid no attention to the petition nor to a similar one which the Revolution of 1848 encouraged the Chartists to prepare. There were some uprisings of the working people, which were put down by the police; but no considerable revolt took place, such as those on the Continent.

Later the leaders of both parties saw that something should be done to extend the privilege of voting to a larger number of the people, and to improve the system by which the votes were apportioned throughout the districts. It was, indeed, a conservative ministry that introduced a bill passed in 1867, which permitted every man dwelling in a town who was an owner of a house and paid the regular taxes or who rented lodgings

worth fifty dollars a year to vote. Similar low qualifications were placed on those living in the country. The passage of this bill meant that the number of voters in England was nearly doubled. In 1884 the franchise was still further extended to include farm laborers and other classes formerly left out.

764. Establishment of Universal Suffrage. No further extension of the right to vote was made until the early twentieth century. Then the women began to demand the vote, and a militant suffrage party appeared and resorted to various forms of violence to gain attention. After ten years of discussion Great Britain finally became a democracy in 1917, when Parliament passed a bill granting the right to vote to adult males and to about six million women who "occupied" land or houses or were the wives of "occupiers."[1]

II. General Reforms in England

765. Freedom of Speech. In addition to the reforms in their Parliament the British have gradually altered their laws with a view to giving the people greater freedom and to improving their condition in important respects.

One of the most essential conditions of a free people is the right of free speech, the right to criticize the government's policy and acts in newspapers and magazines, and liberty to meet for political discussions. Although during the eighteenth century English laws were less oppressive than those on the Continent, it was not until the middle of the nineteenth century that full liberty of speech was attained. England today is very proud of this necessary institution of democracy.

766. Religious Toleration. In England there was a good deal of religious freedom in the eighteenth century, but Catholics and those Protestants who disagreed with the State Church—namely,

[1] The granting of the right to vote to women is one of the most important and interesting events of the early twentieth century. Australia granted suffrage to women in 1901; Finland, Norway, Sweden, and Denmark between 1907 and 1915. The World War brought the same result not only in England but in the United States, Russia, Germany, Hungary, and other countries.

the Dissenters—were excluded from public offices. After long agitation this restriction was removed. In 1828 the old laws directed against Dissenters were repealed on condition that those seeking office should take an oath not to use their influence to injure or weaken the established Church of England. The following year the Catholics were put on the footing of other citizens by the passage of the Emancipation Act, which admitted them to both houses of Parliament and to almost all public offices upon condition that they would renounce their belief in the right of the Pope to interfere in government matters and would disclaim all intention of attacking the Protestant religion.

767. Public Schools. In the early part of the nineteenth century there was still a great deal of illiteracy in England. Since 1870 the government has been providing for the founding of free public schools, and as a result almost all English children now learn to read and write. As newspapers may now be had for a penny or so, almost everyone is in a position to buy them, read them, and learn what is going on in the world.

768. Reform of the Criminal Law and Prisons. The English criminal law was very harsh at the opening of the nineteenth century. There were no less than two hundred and fifty offenses for which the penalty of death was established. By a gradual process of abolishing one death penalty after another, the long list of capital offenses was at last reduced to three in 1861. In 1835, after a parliamentary investigation had revealed the horrible conditions of prisons, a law was passed providing for government inspection and the improvement of their administration, and this marked the beginning of prison reform.

769. Wretchedness in English Factories. The factory system had brought untold misery to the working classes of England. Great factory buildings were hastily erected by men who paid little attention to the health and comfort of the workers. Around the factories there sprang up long, dreary rows of grimy brick cottages where the workmen and their families were crowded together. The introduction of steam-driven machin-

ery had made possible the use of child labor on a large scale. The conditions of adult labor, save in the most skilled classes, were almost as wretched as those of child labor.

770. Factory Reform begins (1833). Finally, in 1833, Parliament, after much investigation, reduced the hours of child labor in cotton and woolen mills, and in 1842 women and children were forbidden to work in the mines. It was not until 1847 that a bill was passed restricting the labor of women and children in mills to ten hours.

With this victory for the reformers the general resistance to State interference was broken down; and year after year, through the long reign of Queen Victoria (1837–1901) and her successors, new measures were carried through Parliament, revising and supplementing earlier laws, until today Great Britain does more, perhaps, than any other European country for the welfare of the factory operatives.

771. England's Free Trade. England is famous for its free trade, while almost all other countries *protect* their manufacturers by a tariff imposing custom duties on most articles imported from foreign countries. England believed heartily in protection and shipping laws until about the middle of the nineteenth century, when English manufacturers decided that they could compete with the world on a free-trade basis. First, all duties on grain (the Corn Laws) were abolished; and then, between 1852 and 1867, all navigation laws (§§ 462, 463, 481, 482) and protective duties were done away with.

772. Program of the Liberal Party (1906). The Conservatives —or, as they had come to be called, the Unionists[1]—were, except for a short period, in power for twenty years (from 1886 to 1906), and interest in general reform seemed to have died out in England. But in 1906 a general election took place; and the

[1] When Gladstone introduced the Home Rule Bill for Ireland in 1886, many Liberals who believed in maintaining the union with Ireland deserted Gladstone and formed a separate group called the Liberal Unionists. As years went on, this party found itself in sympathy with most of the views of the Conservatives, with whom they allied themselves about 1895, the combination taking the name of Unionist party.

Liberals, reënforced by a new Labor party and the Irish Nationalists, came into control of the House of Commons. A new period of active and wide-reaching reform then began which continued until it was interrupted by the outbreak of the World War in 1914.

The parties in power agreed that something must be done to relieve the poverty in which it was found that a great part of the population lived. Bills were introduced for giving help to those injured in factories and pensions to aged workmen no longer able to earn a livelihood; for diminishing the evils of sweatshops, where people worked for shockingly low wages; for securing work for the unemployed; for providing meals for poor school children; and for properly housing the poverty-stricken and so getting rid of slums.

Lloyd George

773. Lloyd George's War on Misery. In 1908 David Lloyd George became Chancellor of the Exchequer, in charge of the nation's finances. In April, 1909, Lloyd George made a famous speech in introducing his budget. "I am told," he said, "that no chancellor of the exchequer has ever been called on to impose such heavy taxes in a time of peace. This is a war budget. It is for raising money to wage implacable warfare against poverty and squalidness. I cannot help hoping and believing that before this generation has passed away we shall have advanced a great step towards that good time when poverty and wretchedness and human degradation, which always follow in its camp, will be as remote to the people of this country as the wolves which once infested its forests."

In another speech defending his plans Lloyd George said: "We are placing burdens on the broadest shoulders. Why should we put burdens on the people? I was brought up amongst them, I know their trials, and God forbid that I should add one grain of trouble to the anxieties which they bear with such patience and fortitude. When the prime minister [Asquith] did me the honor of inviting me to take charge of the national Exchequer at a time of great difficulty, I made up my mind, in framing the Budget which was in front of me, that at any rate no cupboard should be barer, no lot should be harder. By that test I challenge you to judge the Budget."

Lloyd George and his sympathizers were shocked that ten men should own a quarter of London, that dukes should control vast estates, exact high rents for miserable cottages and eject the tenants at their pleasure. His budget included high taxes on luxuries together with a heavy tax on large incomes and on large estates at the death of their owner. The most revolutionary feature of the budget was a land tax which distinguished between landowners who worked their lands and those who simply held large areas as lordly country estates or, in the case of city real estate, held it with a view of selling it later at a great advance. He proposed a tax of twenty per cent on the unearned increase in land value when this was not due to the owner's improvements.

It should be noticed that Lloyd George and his supporters, before imposing taxes, not only asked how much a man had but how he got his income. Those who worked their lands or operated mines or factories were to be treated with more consideration than those who owed their incomes to the efforts of others. In this way Lloyd George introduced a new principle of taxation, which was vigorously denounced by the Conservatives as revolutionary and socialistic.

774. The House of Lords loses its Former Powers. The budget advocated by Lloyd George passed the House of Commons, but was rejected by the indignant House of Lords. Parliament was dissolved, and a new election was held to show that

GREAT TANGLEY MANOR IN SURREY, BUILT IN ELIZABETH'S TIME

Such houses of the English nobility often lay in great parks which Lloyd George felt should be turned over to agriculture

the voters were on the side of the ministry. Then the Lords yielded; but the Liberals had been so exasperated at their opposition that, by the Parliament Act of 1911, they took away the power of the Lords to interfere seriously in the future with the will of the people as expressed in the elections and reserved to the House of Commons complete control over money matters.

III. The Irish Question

775. The English in Ireland. Among the most serious problems that have constantly agitated Parliament during the past century is the Irish question. As early as the time of Henry II (1154–1189) Ireland began to be invaded by the English, who seized lands from which they enjoyed the revenue. The Irish revolted under Elizabeth and again under Cromwell. They were cruelly punished, and more estates were confiscated. In 1688 the Irish sided with the Catholic king, James II, and were again subdued, and more land was taken.

776. Absentee Landlords. Now the English landlords to whom these estates were given and their descendants, for the most part, lived in England. In the nineteenth century millions of pounds yearly were extorted from Ireland to pay absentee landlords, who rarely set foot in that country and took little or no interest in their tenants beyond the collection of their rents. If the tenants did not pay or could not pay, they were speedily evicted from their cottages and lands.

777. Condition of the Peasantry. Throughout large portions of Ireland the peasants were constantly on the verge of starvation. Whenever there was a failure of the potato crop, on which from one third to one half the population depended for food, there were scenes of misery in Ireland which defy description. This was the case in the "Black Year of Forty-seven," when the potato crop failed almost entirely and thousands died of starvation in spite of the relief afforded by the government. It was in the midst of this terrible famine that the stream of emigration began to flow toward America. Within half a cen-

tury four million emigrants left the shores of Ireland for other countries, principally the United States, taking with them their bitter resentment against England.

778. The Question of the Irish Catholics. When England became Protestant she attempted to convert Ireland, but the Irish remained faithful to the Pope and the Roman Catholic Church. The English then set up their own Church in Ireland, drove out the Catholic priests, and substituted for them clergymen of the Church of England. Although the Protestants in Ireland numbered only one in ten of the population, the Catholics were forced to support the English churchmen by paying tithes from their scanty incomes. When Catholics were admitted to Parliament in 1829, they set to work to get rid of the old system; and in 1869, after a long struggle of forty years, the English Church in Ireland was deprived of its former government support and privileges, and the tithes were abolished.

779. The Irish Land Question. After gaining this important point the Irish members in Parliament, under the leadership of Parnell, forced the Irish land question on the attention of Parliament. From 1881 to 1903 a series of acts was passed securing the Irish peasants a fair rent and advancing them money to buy their holdings, if they wished, on condition that they would pay back the money in installments to the government. It seemed as if the land question were gradually being adjusted.

780. The Question of Home Rule for Ireland. In addition to their demand for fair treatment in the matter of religion and land, the Irish leaders unceasingly clamored for Home Rule. This question divided the English Parliament for years. Until 1801 Ireland had maintained a separate parliament. The Act of Union of 1801, abolishing the Irish parliament, provided that Ireland should be represented by a hundred members in the House of Commons and by twenty-eight peers in the House of Lords. The Irish patriots resented this arrangement and commenced agitating for the restoration of their own parliament, for the English and Scotch had an overwhelming majority in the British Parliament. But nothing happened for

GLADSTONE ADDRESSING THE HOUSE OF COMMONS ON THE HOME RULE BILL

many years. At last William Gladstone, the famous leader of the Liberal party, was won over. He tried in 1886 and again in 1893 to secure Home Rule for Ireland, but failed.

781. Difficulty of settling the Problem of Irish Independence. The question of satisfying the Irish, who longed to be free from the control of the British Parliament, was an extremely difficult one, owing to several circumstances. In the first place, there have always been a great many Englishmen, in and out of Parliament, who are quite satisfied with the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland as it has existed since 1801. Then while three fourths of the people of Ireland are Roman Catholics, the province of Ulster, in the northeast of the island, with its large city of Belfast, has a slight majority of Protestants,—Presbyterians and Anglicans,—who have always had a great horror of a free Ireland, since they feel assured that it would be controlled by their Catholic countrymen. They much prefer to remain under the Protestant Parliament of Great Britain.

782. Rise of a Republican Party in Ireland. Early in the twentieth century a party bent on making Ireland an absolutely free and independent republic arose, led by Arthur Griffith. These republicans called themselves *Sinn Fein* (shin fān), the Irish for "We ourselves." The republicans gradually increased in strength; and in 1916, in the midst of the World War, some of them organized a rebellion and entered into negotiations with the Germans. The British easily put down the revolt; but their treatment of the rebellious Irish so increased the ranks of the republican party that it set up a parliament of its own at Dublin and chose Eamonn De Valera as its president (1919).

783. Founding of the Irish Free State. After three more years of conflict between the English troops and the Ulsterites, on the one hand, and the Irish republicans, on the other, with assassinations, executions, and imprisonments, Lloyd George summoned a conference at London, and a plan for Ireland's practical independence was worked out, December, 1921. Article I reads: "Ireland shall have the same constitutional status in the community of nations known as the British Empire as

the Dominion of Canada, the Commonwealth of Australia, the Dominion of New Zealand and the Union of South Africa, with a Parliament having powers to make laws for the peace, order and good government of Ireland, and an executive responsible to that Parliament, and shall be styled and known as the Irish Free State." The new government was set up at Dublin, and the Irish Free State was admitted to the League of Nations.

Ulster refused to join with the south and is permitted to have its own "Government of Northern Ireland." Then De Valera and the more extreme republicans continued to fight for the absolute and complete independence of Ireland, not only in the matter of its domestic affairs but in all military and international matters. But it is hard to convince the British that it would be safe to have a power to the west which might make common cause with their enemies should war come. Ireland at last has Home Rule, but she is neither unified nor completely independent.

IV. The British Empire: India

784. Rôle of the East India Company. We left the history of India with the victory of the English over the French and the British conquest of Bengal, where Calcutta is situated (§ 473). The East India Company was involved in constant wars with the native rulers. It developed an army and continued to acquire more and more territory. It had an immense income from taxes and various business monopolies. The home government could exercise but little control over the officials of the Company, who accumulated vast fortunes by easy graft. Clive himself became very rich, and frankly admitted that graft was practiced by all those connected with the Company—high and low. Those who got rich in India and returned to London to spend their money were known as "nabobs."

785. Parliament begins to take Control of India. This scandalous situation naturally attracted the attention of Parliament, which determined to reserve to itself the right henceforth to

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THE PEARL MOSQUE, DELHI, INDIA

appoint the highest officials in India; but the governor-generals who were sent out continued to find themselves drawn into conflicts with the native rulers.

786. British India at the Opening of the Nineteenth Century. By 1805 the British rule extended not only over the Bengal region but far up the Ganges valley beyond Delhi. A narrow strip along the eastern coast, the southern point of the peninsula, and the island of Ceylon had also been brought under England's control, and in the west she held Bombay and a considerable area north of Surat. Besides these regions, which the British administered directly, there were a number of princes over whom they exercised the right of "protection." The French and Portuguese possessions had declined into mere trading posts, and in the heart of India only one power disputed the advance of the English toward complete conquest (see Map 15).

Maharajah Sahiba of Bharatpur

787. The Mahratta Confederacy. This was a union of native princes, known as the Mahratta Confederacy. It occupied the region to the east of the Bombay coast, and the constant fighting that went on between its members continually disturbed the neighboring British possessions. At length Great Britain determined to suppress the Mahrattas and succeeded in conquering their territory in a serious war which took place in 1816–1818. A considerable part of their land was annexed; but some of the princes were permitted to continue their rule under British sovereignty—a position that they still occupy.

788. Conquest of the Gurkhas and Nepal. About the same time, England conquered the Gurkhas, who lived to the north along the great mountain range of the Himalayas. The Gurkhas were a menace, for they were wont to sweep down from the hills and destroy the villages of the defenseless peasants in the plain of the Ganges. They succeeded in founding a kingdom called Nepal; but they could not defend their realms against the British, who defeated them and forced them to cede to Great Britain a vast region extending up into the Himalayas to the borders of Tibet.

789. Annexation in Burma (1826–1885). While the British were busy with the Mahrattas and Gurkhas, the Burmese were passing into the Bengal districts from the east. Their ambitions were, however, checked by the British (1824–1826), and they were compelled to cede to the victors a considerable strip of territory along the *east* coast of the Bay of Bengal. Having thus made their first definite advance beyond the confines of India proper, the British, after twenty-five years of peace with the Burmese, engaged in a second war against them in 1852 and made themselves masters of the Irrawaddy valley and a long strip of coast below Rangoon, and, finally, conquered the whole country in another Burmese war in 1884–1885. (See Map 22 for British conquests on the eastern shores of the Bay of Bengal.)

790. Conquest of the Sind and Punjab Regions. On the northwestern frontier, in the valley of the Indus, where the soldiers of Alexander the Great had halted on their eastward march, there was a fertile region known as the Sind, ruled over by an *ameer*. On the ground that the ameer's government was inefficient and corrupt, the British invaded his territory in 1843 and added his domain to their Indian empire, thus winning a strong western frontier. This enterprise was scarcely concluded when a war broke out with the Sikhs in the northwest, which resulted in the addition of the great Punjab region farther up the valley of the Indus, northeast of Sind, and the extension of the boundary of the British-Indian empire to the borders of Afghanistan.

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STREET OF THE THREE GATEWAYS, AHMEDABAD, INDIA

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THE IMPERIAL DURBAR, INDIA

In a great ceremonial gathering, or *durbar*, the princes of India meet to offer allegiance to the British ruler upon his accession. The last imperial durbar was a scene of great magnificence on too vast a scale to be reproduced in a single picture

791. The Sepoy Rebellion (1857). England's conquests naturally caused great bitterness among the native princes who lost their thrones, and among the Mohammedans, who hated the Christians. In 1857 a terrible revolt of the Indian troops, known as sepoys (§ 472), serving under British officers, took place. The sepoys mutinied at Delhi and massacred the English inhabitants of the city; the inhabitants of Lucknow rose against the foreigners, and at Cawnpore a thousand British men, women, and children were cruelly massacred. Many of the sepoys remained loyal, however, and the British armies were able to put down the mutiny.

792. India under the British Parliament. After the suppression of the sepoy rebellion the Parliament of Great Britain revolutionized the government of India. The administration of the peninsula was finally taken entirely out of the hands of the East India Company, which had directed it for more than two hundred and fifty years. It was vested in the British sovereign (1858), to be exercised under parliamentary control. On January 1, 1877, Queen Victoria was proclaimed empress of India amid an illustrious gathering of Indian princes and British officials. King George V, as emperor of India, now rules over more than three hundred millions of Indian subjects inhabiting a domain embracing about 1,800,000 square miles. The Secretary of State for India is responsible for Indian affairs, while the actual administration in India is conducted by a viceroy in council appointed by the British government.

793. Progress in India. The construction of railway lines has been pushed forward with great rapidity, so that the vast interior might be quickly reached by troops and an outlet opened for its crops of cotton, rice, wheat, indigo, and tobacco. Cotton mills are rising by the tombs of ancient kings, cities are increasing rapidly in population, and the foreign trade by sea has multiplied twentyfold in the past seventy years. About eight hundred newspapers, printed in twenty-two languages, including Burmese, Sanskrit, and Persian, are published; educational institutions have been provided for nearly five million students.

As a result, an industrial and educational revolution has been taking place in India. A Nationalist party has developed which demands home rule or even independence for India. The British government consented after the World War that Indian representatives should be added to the council of the Secretary for India and to that of the viceroy (see Chapter XLII).

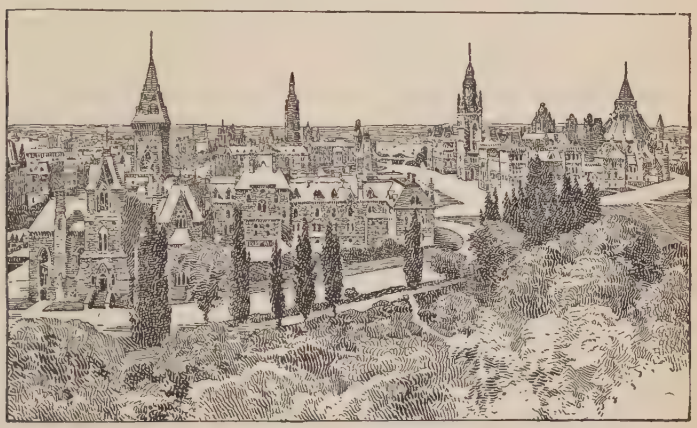
V. The British Empire: Canada and Australasia

794. Population of Canada. In the Western Hemisphere Canada is the greatest of England's possessions. When it came into the hands of the English during the Seven Years' War, it was inhabited by some sixty-five thousand French colonists. Parliament permitted the people to continue to enjoy their Roman Catholic faith and their old laws. During the American Revolution many people from the United States fled to Canada; and, with the addition of immigrants from England, an English-speaking population has gradually been built up,—mostly outside of what is now the province of Quebec,—so that Canada now has nine million inhabitants.

795. Canada granted Self-government. In Upper Canada (now Ontario) the refugees from the English colonies to the south, known as United Empire Loyalists, who were mostly Tories, were in control of the government. The Liberals became exasperated at the lack of responsible government, and a section of them took up arms in rebellion in 1837. In Lower Canada (now Quebec) rebellion broke out as well, due to the irritation of the French at British rule. Both rebellions were easily crushed; but the British sent over an investigator, Lord Durham, whose report (1840), advocating self-government for the colonies, marks a turning point in the attitude of Great Britain toward the treatment of her possessions beyond the seas. From that time on it has been a matter of principle in British politics to give self-government to the colonies so far as can be done. This is one of the most important revolutions in the history of government. The British self-governing colonies even

make their own treaties with other countries. They are practically free nations who rejoice in belonging to the vast British Empire.

796. The Dominion of Canada. In 1867 a federation of Canadian states was formed which included at first only Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia. The great regions to the west and north were later developed by transcontinental railways and divided into provinces and territories and added



THE PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, OTTAWA

Parliament Hill is beautifully situated beside the Ottawa River. The main building was burned, February, 1916

to the union. So the Dominion of Canada is a federation somewhat like the United States. It is greater in area than the republic to the south of it, and, though much of it lies very far north, there are vast plains growing millions of bushels of wheat in the Northwest, and much mineral wealth in its rocky and mountainous portions.

797. Canada's Independence of the Mother Country. Britain leaves Canada very free to go its own way. It is true that the British ruler is represented in Canada by a governor-general, who nominally appoints the members of the senate; in reality

these are chosen mainly by the Canadian premier and the party in power and hold office for life. The Canadian House of Commons is the important body. It is elected by the people of the various Canadian provinces and governs Canada in the same way in which the British Commons govern Great Britain. When the World War broke out in 1914 Canada sided enthusiastically with the mother country and sent troops who fought heroically with the Allies against Germany.

798. Australia. In the southern Pacific Ocean lie two members of the British "Commonwealth of Nations"—the Commonwealth of Australia, which includes the continent of Australia and the island of Tasmania, and the Dominion of New Zealand. These exceed in extent the whole United States; New Zealand alone is larger than the island of Great Britain. A great part of the continent of Australia lies in the south temperate zone, but the northern region, near the equator, is parched by heat in summer, and the whole central portion suffers from a scarcity of water, which makes vast areas of the interior permanently uninhabitable unless some means of irrigation on a large scale can be introduced. The eastern and southern coasts have always been the chief centers of colonization. Melbourne, in the extreme south, lies in a latitude corresponding to that of Washington, St. Louis, and San Francisco in the Northern Hemisphere. The country possesses gold, silver, coal, tin, copper, and iron. Tasmania and New Zealand are more fortunate than Australia in the diversity of their scenery and the general fertility of their soil, while their climate is said to possess all the advantages of that of the mother country without her fog and smoke.

799. Colonizing of Australia. Australia and Tasmania were occupied in the eighteenth century by a scattered population of savages in a specially low stage of civilization; no European power had made any serious attempt to gain any foothold there until England in 1787 decided that Botany Bay—near the modern town of Sydney—would be an excellent and remote spot to which to send criminals and debtors of whom she wished to

get rid. For many years convicts continued to be dispatched to Australia and Tasmania, but by the middle of the nineteenth century so many British colonists had settled in New South Wales, West Australia, Queensland, and South Australia that they induced the British government to give up the practice of transporting criminals to these lands. The discovery of gold in 1851 led to a great rush of immigrants; but farming and sheep raising are the chief industries now.

800. The Commonwealth of Australia. The Australian colonies finally decided that they would prefer to form a union like the Dominion of Canada. Accordingly, in 1900, the British Parliament passed an act constituting the Commonwealth of Australia, to be composed of six states—New South Wales, Tasmania, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, and West Australia. The king is represented by a governor-general; the federal parliament is composed of two Houses—a senate, consisting of six senators from each state, and a house of representatives chosen in the same way as in the United States. This body has extensive power over commerce, railways, currency, banking, postal and telegraph service, marriage and divorce, and industrial arbitration. The system of secret voting, called the "Australian ballot," has spread from Australia to England and the United States. Its purpose is to discourage corruption by making it impossible for a political manager who has bribed men to vote for his side to be sure that they really fulfill their promises.

801. The Settlement of New Zealand. To the southeast of Australia, twelve hundred miles away, lie the islands of New Zealand, to which English pioneers began to go in the early part of the nineteenth century. In 1840 the English concluded a treaty with the native Maoris, by which the latter were assigned a definite reservation of lands on condition that they would recognize Queen Victoria as their sovereign. The English settlers established the city of Auckland on North Island, and twenty-five years later New Zealand became a separate colony, with the seat of government at Wellington.

802. Social Reform in New Zealand. New Zealand has recently become famous for its experiments in social reform. During the last decade of the nineteenth century the workingmen became very influential, and they have been able to carry through the New Zealand parliament a number of measures which they believe to be to their advantage. Special courts are established to settle disputes between employers and their workmen; a pension law helps the poor in their old age.

VI. The British Empire: South Africa

803. England and the Boers. Great Britain's possessions in South Africa have caused her much more trouble than those in North America and Australasia. During the Napoleonic wars she seized the Dutch colony of the Cape of Good Hope. It was inhabited mainly by Dutch farmers, and the name "Boers" generally given to them is nothing but the Dutch word for "peasants." The English introduced their own language and carried through certain reforms, including the abolition of slavery in 1833. This the Boers did not like, and ten thousand of them moved northward across the Orange River into an unpromising region known now as the Orange Free State. During the succeeding years large numbers of them moved still farther north. This migration carried the Boers across the Vaal River, where they founded the Transvaal colony. The British for a time recognized the independence of both the Orange Free State and the Transvaal (1852). The region seemed so unpromising that Parliament thought it unimportant to attempt to keep control of it.

804. The Boers and the Uitlanders. In 1886, however, gold was discovered in the southern part of the Transvaal, and many foreigners (*Uitlanders*,—chiefly English) began to rush into the Dutch colony. They got along badly with the Boers, who lived a rude, wild life and had very little government. The Uitlanders arranged a conspiracy in 1895 to get the Transvaal constitution changed so that they would have a voice in the government. Cecil Rhodes, a man of vast wealth and the prime minister of

Cape Colony, appears to have encouraged a Dr. Jameson to organize a raid into the Transvaal with a view of compelling the Boers to let the Uitlanders share in the government. Jameson's raid failed, and the Boers captured the insurgents. Under Paul Kruger, the president of the Transvaal Republic, the Boers began to make military preparation to defend themselves and entered into an alliance with their neighbors of the Orange Free State to the south of them.

General Jan Christian Smuts

General Smuts became premier of the Union of South Africa and used his influence against a movement to break away from Great Britain in 1921. He showed himself deeply concerned for the success of the League of Nations and expressed a high esteem for the rôle played by President Wilson in promoting its organization. (From a painting by Francis Dodd. Used by permission)

805. The Boer War (1899). The British now began to fear that the Boers would not be satisfied until they had got control of all the British possessions in South Africa. The Boers declared that Great Britain was only trying to find an excuse for annexing the two republics which the Dutch farmers had built up in the wilderness after a long fight with the native savages. Finally, in 1899, the weak Transvaal and the Orange Free State bravely declared war on Great Britain. The Boers proved good soldiers and made a firm stand, while the British, unfamiliar with the country, suffered severe reverses in the beginning. Moreover, many Englishmen were not in sympathy with the attempt to conquer the Dutch African farmers. In the end the British, with the effective assistance of Canadian troops, got the better of the Boers and annexed the two Boer republics.

806. Formation of the Union of South Africa. With a wise liberality toward the conquered Boers, Britain proceeded to give them self-government like other parts of the empire. In 1910 an act of Parliament formed a Union of South Africa on the model of Canada and Australia. This includes the flourishing Cape Colony, with its great diamond mines about Kimberley, Natal to the northeast, and the two Boer republics—the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. These are now managed as a single federation by a representative of the British king and a parliament which makes laws for the whole union. When war broke out between England and Germany in 1914 the Germans expected the Boers to rise against Great Britain, but they were disappointed. The prime minister of the Union of South Africa, General Botha, who had been the best Boer general in the war against England fifteen years before, not only easily suppressed a rising of some of his old comrades but conquered German Southwest Africa for the British Empire. The British look with much pride upon this tribute to their wisdom in granting freedom and self-government to the Boers.[1]

807. Other British Possessions in Africa. In addition to these colonies Great Britain has three enormous provinces in Africa occupied almost entirely by negroes. North of the Cape lies the Bechuanaland protectorate, inhabited by peaceful native tribes. Next beyond Bechuanaland and the Transvaal is Rhodesia, which was acquired through the British South Africa Company by two annexations in 1888 and 1898 and, with subsequent additions, brought under the protection of the British government. On the east coast, extending inland to the great lakes at the source of the Nile, lies the valuable ranching land of British East Africa. It is of especial value as controlling the southern approach to the Sudan and Egypt, which are so important to Britain. (See Map 23 for further details.)

[1] There are about six millions of people in the Union of South Africa, but a large portion of these are colored. The white population, including both those of English and those of Dutch descent, do not equal in number the inhabitants of Philadelphia. At the close of the World War German Southwest Africa was put under the control of the Union of South Africa (Map 23).

QUESTIONS

I. What is cabinet government? How has it been connected with party government? How is the English government responsible to the people? Describe the ways in which Parliament failed to represent the nation prior to 1832. Outline the provisions of the Reform Bill of 1832. What did the Chartists want? How was the right to vote later extended?

II. Why is freedom of speech an important part of self-government? Trace the growth of religious liberty in England from the seventeenth century. Can you imagine any arguments for and against a stern criminal law? for keeping prisons horrible? What was the effect of factory work upon children? Why did economists oppose shorter hours of labor? When did England accept free trade? Describe the work of the Liberal government from 1906.

III. What were the sources of Ireland's misery? What were the conditions of the union of 1801? What are the obstacles in the way of Home Rule for Ireland? Describe the origin and position of the Irish Free State.

IV. How did England conquer India (answer with the map)? What different races are there in India? What was the cause of the mutiny? How did Victoria become empress of India? What have the British done for India? How is India governed today?

V. Outline the history of Canada in the nineteenth century. Why was the Durham report an important event in world history? How is Canada governed? How was Australia settled? When were the colonies united? What political experiments is New Zealand famous for?

VI. Sketch the early history of South Africa. How did the Transvaal originate? What right had the British to interfere in it? What was the settlement of the struggle in South Africa?

CHAPTER XXXVI

THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

I. Russia in the Early Nineteenth Century

808. Great Interest of Russian History. During the past century Russia has been coming into ever closer relations with western Europe. Although she is still a backward country in many respects, the works of some of her writers, especially those of Leo Tolstoy and Turgenev, are widely read in foreign lands. The music of Rubinstein and Tschaikowsky is as highly esteemed in London or New York as in Petrograd or Moscow. Recently the Moscow Art Theater has been giving performances in American cities and has drawn large audiences, although most of the spectators could not understand a word of the Russian tongue. In the field of science Russians like Metchnikoff and Mendelyeev have made important discoveries and brought distinction to their fatherland. Numbers of educated Russians have, in the last twenty-five years, settled in the United States, while thousands of emigrants have fled to America, seeking relief from the hard conditions in their own country. The long fight against the despotism of the Tsar followed by the tremendous social revolution introduced by the Bolsheviki served to attract the attention of all Europe and America to Russian affairs. It becomes, therefore, a matter of vital interest to follow the changes which have been taking place in that vast country since Napoleon's time.

809. Vast Extent of the Tsar's Dominions. When, in 1815, Tsar Alexander I returned to his capital after the close of the Congress of Vienna, he could view his position and recent achievements with pride. Alexander had participated in Napoleon's overthrow; he had succeeded in uniting the rulers of

THE KREMLIN, MOSCOW

The Kremlin is a walled inclosure containing three cathedrals, a convent, a monastery, a palace of the Tsars, and various other buildings, in which are priceless treasures of art. Note the oriental domes

western Europe in the Holy Alliance (§ 647) which he had so much at heart, and he was, moreover, the undisputed and autocratic ruler of more than half the continent of Europe, not to speak of vast reaches of northern Asia which lay beneath his scepter.

Under his dominion there were many races and peoples, differing in customs, language, and religion—Finns, Germans, Poles, Jews, Tartars, Armenians, Georgians, and Mongols.[1] The Russians themselves had colonized the southern plains of European Russia and had spread even into Siberia. They made up a large proportion of the population of the empire, and their language was everywhere taught in the schools and used by the officials.

In the time of Alexander I the great mass of the population still lived in the country, and more than half of them were serfs, as ignorant and wretched as those of France or England in the twelfth century.

810. Absolute powers of the Tsar. Alexander I had inherited, as "Autocrat of all the Russias," a despotic power over his subjects similar to that to which Louis XIV laid claim. There was no thought of any responsibility to the people, and the tyranny which the Tsar's officials were able to exercise will become apparent as we proceed.

During his early years Alexander entertained liberal ideas, but after his return from the Congress of Vienna he became as apprehensive of revolution as his friend Metternich and threw himself into the arms of the "Old-Russian" party, which obstinately opposed the introduction of all Western ideas. The Tsar was soon denouncing liberalism as a frightful danger which threatened the whole social order. He lent assistance to Metternich in his efforts to suppress revolutionary tendencies and

[1] The Cossacks, or light cavalry, who constituted so conspicuous a feature of the Russian army, were originally lawless rovers on the southern and eastern frontiers, composed mainly of adventurous Russians with some admixture of other peoples. Certain districts were assigned to them by the government on the lower Don, near the Black Sea, in the Urals, and elsewhere, in return for military service.

in his own empire permitted his officials to stamp out many of the ideas he had formerly encouraged. Censorship of the press put an end to all liberal newspapers, and the instruction in the universities was carefully watched lest any new and dangerous ideas should be taught. The Tsar could not prevent, however, some of his more enlightened subjects from reading the new books from western Europe which dealt with scientific discoveries and questions of political and social reform.

Alexander I died suddenly on December 1, 1825. The revolutionary societies, which had grown up as a result of the oppression of the people, seized this opportunity to organize a revolt known as the "December conspiracy." But the movement was badly organized; a few charges of grapeshot brought the insurgents to terms, and some of the leaders were hanged.

811. Polish Rebellion (1830–1831). Nicholas I never forgot the rebellion which inaugurated his reign, and he proved one of the most despotic of all the long list of autocratic rulers. The constitution which Alexander had granted Poland in his liberal days was violated, and the government offices were filled by Russians. Moreover, petitions of the Polish diet were ignored by the Tsar. These harsh measures speedily produced a revolt in Poland. Europe made no response to her appeals for assistance, and the Tsar's armies soon crushed the rebellion with great cruelty. The constitution was taken away, the national flag forbidden, and forty-five thousand Polish families sent into exile in Russia. To all intents and purposes the kingdom of Poland (§ 643) became henceforth merely a Russian province, governed, like the rest of the empire, from St. Petersburg, the capital (§ 438).[1]

812. Stern Efforts of Nicholas to check Liberalism. The Tsar adopted strong measures to check the growth of liberalism. His officials sought to prevent in every way the admission into Russia of Western ideas. Books on religion and science were care-

[1] Thirty years later, in 1863, the Poles made another desperate attempt to free themselves from the yoke of Russia, but failed. Napoleon III refused to assist them, and Bismarck supported the Tsar in the fearful repression which followed.

fully examined by the police or the clergy; foreign works containing references to politics were either confiscated or the objectionable pages were blotted out by the censors. Private letters were opened, even when there was no reason to suspect their writers. It may be said that, except for a few short intervals of freedom, this whole system continued down to the revolution of 1917.

II. Russia and the Near-Eastern Question; the Crimean War

813. The Turkish, or Near-Eastern, Questions.[1] Before the end of his reign Nicholas I became involved in a war with England and France over the perennial Turkish question. Russia had always been anxious to seize portions of the Sultan's possessions and was eager in time to get control of Constantinople and the Dardanelles. Austria, England, and France, on the other hand, were hotly opposed to this ambition, and the rivalries and struggles of the European powers over the remains of the once wide realms of the Turkish Sultan constitute an important chapter in the history of the nineteenth century and led finally to the World War of 1914.

In the course of our narrative something has been said of the coming of the Turks into Europe, their capture of Constantinople in 1453, and their conquests westward into Hungary and toward the Adriatic. They even besieged Vienna in 1683, but were shortly after expelled from Hungary (about the year 1700). While they ceased to be a serious menace to the Christian states of central Europe, the question arose as to what was to be done with European Turkey, which was inhabited largely by Christians belonging to the Eastern or Greek Church. Russia claimed to be the natural protector of the Slavic peoples under the Sultan, since these Slavs were of the same race as the great mass of the Russians and shared their religion.

[1] The Near-Eastern question, concerning the Turkish realms, is to be distinguished from the Far-Eastern question, that of European claims in China and the Orient.

THE GRAND THEATER, MOSCOW

814. Russian Influence in Turkey. Catherine the Great had managed to conquer the Crimea and a region close on the Black Sea, and had induced the "Porte," as the Turkish government was commonly called, to grant Russia the right to protect the Sultan's Christian subjects, who belonged to the Greek Church, which was the State Church of Russia.

These and other provisions seemed to give the Russians an excuse for intervening in Turkish affairs and offered an opportunity for stirring up discontent among the Sultan's Christian subjects. In 1812, just before Napoleon's march on Moscow, Alexander I forced Turkey to cede to him Bessarabia on the Black Sea, which was the last of Russia's conquests toward the southwest.

815. Emergence of Serbia (1817). Shortly after the Congress of Vienna the Serbians, who had for a number of years been in revolt against the Turks, were able to establish their practical independence (1817), and Serbia, with Belgrade as its capital, became a principality which, however, still had to pay a certain amount into the treasury of Turkey. This was the first of a series of *Balkan states* which have reëmerged, during the nineteenth century, from beneath the Mohammedan yoke.

816. The National Spirit awakened in Greece. The next state to gain its independence was Greece, whose long conflict against Turkish despotism aroused throughout Europe the sympathy of all who appreciated the glories of ancient Hellas. The inhabitants of the land of Plato, Aristotle, and Demosthenes were, it is true, scarcely to be regarded as descendants of the Greeks, and the language they spoke bore little resemblance to the ancient tongue.[1] At the opening of the nineteenth century, however, the national spirit once more awoke in Greece, and able writers made modern Greek a literary language and employed it in stirring appeals to the patriotism of their fellow countrymen.

[1] The Greek cities which played such an important part in building up the civilization which we enjoy had, as we have seen, fallen first under the control of Philip of Macedonia (§ 103) and his son Alexander the Great (§ 105). After

817. Independence of Greece. England and France combined with Russia to settle the question of Greek independence. Their combined fleets destroyed that of the Sultan in the battle of Navarino in 1827. Russia then compelled the Sultan to recognize the independence of Greece in 1829. She also freed from the Sultan's control the two provinces (Wallachia and Moldavia) at the mouth of the Danube which were later to be combined into the kingdom of Rumania (Map 24).

818. Origin of the Crimean War. A fresh excuse for interfering in Turkish affairs was afforded the Tsar in 1853. Complaints reached him that Christian pilgrims were not permitted by the Turks (who had long been in possession of the Holy Land and Jerusalem) freely to visit the places made sacred by their associations with the life of Jesus. Russia seemed the natural protector of those Christians, at least, who adhered to her own form of Christianity, and the Russian ambassador rudely demanded that the Porte should grant the Tsar a protectorate over all the Christians in Turkey.

When news of this situation reached Paris, Napoleon III, who had recently become emperor, declared that France, in virtue of earlier treaties with the Porte, enjoyed the right to protect Catholic Christians. He found an ally in England, who was fearful that Russia might wrest Constantinople from the Turks and so get control of the Dardanelles and the eastern Mediterranean. When the Tsar's troops marched into the Turkish dominions, France and England came to the Sultan's assistance and declared war upon Russia in 1854.

Alexander's time they became a dependency of Rome and later the Roman emperors divided the Greek territory into provinces of the Empire. After Constantinople became the eastern capital of the Empire the importance of Greece rapidly declined. When the barbarian invasions began it was overrun by the West Goths and other invaders. The Slavs who were occupying the Balkan regions penetrated into Greece and mixed with the population. During the Crusades Western Europeans established little principalities and commercial centers in Greece. Later, Greece was conquered by the Ottoman Turks, who invaded southeastern Europe in the sixteenth century and with its mixture of peoples came under the rule of the Sultan at Constantinople. It continued to be a part of the Turkish Empire until the early part of the nineteenth century.

819. Results of the Crimean War (1854–1856). The war which followed was fought out in the southern part of the Crimean peninsula. Every victory won by the allies was dearly bought. Both the French and the English suffered great hardship and losses. Russia was, however, disheartened by the sufferings of her own soldiers, the inefficiency and corruption of her officials, and the final loss of the mighty fortress of Sevastopol. She saw, moreover, that her near neighbor, Austria, was about to join her enemies. The new Tsar, Alexander II (§ 820), therefore, consented in 1856 to the terms of a treaty drawn up at Paris.

This treaty recognized the independence of the Ottoman Empire and guaranteed its territorial integrity. The "Sublime Porte" was taken into the family of European powers, from which it had hitherto been excluded as a barbarous nation, and the other countries agreed not to interfere further with the domestic affairs of Turkey. In short, Turkey was preserved and strengthened by the intervention of the powers as a bulwark against Russian encroachment into the Balkan Peninsula, but nothing was really done to reform the Turkish administration or to make the lot of the Christian subjects more secure.

III. The Freeing of the Serfs; Terrorism

820. Accession of Alexander II (1855). Nicholas had died in the midst of the reverses of the Crimean War, leaving to his son, Alexander II, the responsibility of coming to terms with the enemy and then, if possible, strengthening Russia by reducing the political corruption and graft, which had been revealed by the war, and by improving the lot of the people at large.

821. Situation of the Russian Serfs. About nine tenths of all the farming land in the Russian empire was in the hands of the nobility. Nearly one half of the Tsar's subjects were serfs whose bondage and wretched lives seemed to present an insurmountable barrier to general progress and prosperity. The landlord commonly reserved a portion of his estate for himself and turned over to his serfs barely enough to enable them to

keep body and soul together. They usually spent three days in the week cultivating their lord's fields. The serf was viewed as scarcely more than a beast of burden.

From time to time the serfs, infuriated by the hard conditions imposed upon them, revolted against their lords. Under Nicholas I, who was an enemy of all kinds of reform, over five hundred

House in Village near Petrograd

riots had occurred, and these seemed to increase rather than decrease, notwithstanding the vigilance of the police.

822. Emancipation of the Serfs (March, 1861). Alexander II, fearful of more serious uprisings of the peasants, undertook the difficult task of freeing forty millions of his subjects from serfdom. After much discussion he issued an emancipation proclamation, March 3, 1861, on the eve of the great Civil War which was to put an end to negro slavery in the United States. Although the decree abolished all rights of the lords over the serfs, the peasants still remained bound to the land, for they were not permitted to leave their villages without a government

pass. The landlords surrendered a portion of their estates to the peasants. This did not, however, become the property of *individual* owners, but was vested in the *village community* as a whole.

823. Emancipation a Hardship. The government dealt very generously with the landlords, as might have been expected. It not only agreed that the peasants should be required to pay for such land as their former masters turned over to them, but commonly fixed the price at an amount far greater than the real value of the land. Since the poor peasants had no money on hand to buy their fields, the government paid the landlords and then began to collect from the serfs in installments. This new freedom seemed to the peasant little better than that enjoyed by a convict condemned to hard labor in the penitentiary.

Although the peasant lived constantly on the verge of starvation, he fell far behind in the payment of his taxes, so that in 1904 the Tsar, in a moment of forced generosity, canceled the arrears, which the peasants could, in any case, never have paid. Two years later the Tsar issued an order permitting all the peasants to leave their villages and seek employment elsewhere. They might, on the other hand, if they so desired, become *owners* of their allotments. This led to the practical abolition of the ancient *mir,* or village community. So it was only a few years ago that Russia did away with serfdom and the manor.

824. Origin of Terrorism. In 1864 Alexander II made some further reforms by creating a number of local assemblies consisting of representatives chosen by landowners and peasants. These assemblies, although strictly watched by the central government, were permitted to manage certain neighborhood affairs such as primary schools, hospitals, and sanitary matters. Although these reforms were slight, they gave the people some little share in the directing of their own affairs, and especially encouraged the hope that the Tsar would establish a national assembly. But a second revolt of Poland and an attempt on his life put an end to all reforms on Alexander's part, and the police were set to work to check every movement that had the least suspicion of reform about it.

Many members of the educated and well-to-do classes became horrified at the despotic régime which now followed. Young people joined clubs for the study of history, constitutional government, and French and German socialism. Similar societies were formed among the university students, who tried to spread among the peasants the desire for liberty.

The government officials regarded all reformers with the utmost suspicion and began to arrest the more active among them. The prisons were soon crowded, and hundreds were banished to Siberia. The Tsar and his police seemed to be the avowed enemies of all progress, and anyone who advanced a new idea was punished as if he had committed a murder. It seemed to the more ardent reformers that there was no course open to them but to declare war on the government as a body of cruel, corrupt tyrants who would keep Russia in darkness forever merely in order that they might continue to fill their own pockets by grinding down the people. They argued that the wicked acts of the officials must be exposed, the government intimidated, and the eyes of the world opened to the horrors of the situation by conspicuous acts of retaliation. So some of the reformers became *terrorists*, not because they were depraved men or loved bloodshed, but because they were convinced that there was no other way to save their beloved land from the fearful oppression under which it groaned.

825. Terrorism (1878–1881). The government fought terrorism with terrorism. Suspected revolutionists were hanged and scores sent to the dungeons of St. Petersburg or the mines of Siberia. The terrorists, on their part, replied by attacks on the life of the Tsar and of his officials. In one attempt to assassinate the Tsar the Winter Palace at St. Petersburg was wrecked by a revolutionist disguised as a carpenter. Alexander II finally realized that something must be done to pacify his enemies and decided to grant the reformers a constitution providing for an assembly elected by the people. It was too late, however. On the afternoon that he gave his assent he was assassinated as he was driving to his palace (March, 1881).

IV. The Russo-Turkish War (1877–1878)

826. Miserable Condition of the Peoples under the Turkish Rule. In 1877 Russia found an opportunity to extend her power in the Balkan Peninsula, where the Turks were engaged in a wholesale massacre of the Bulgarians.

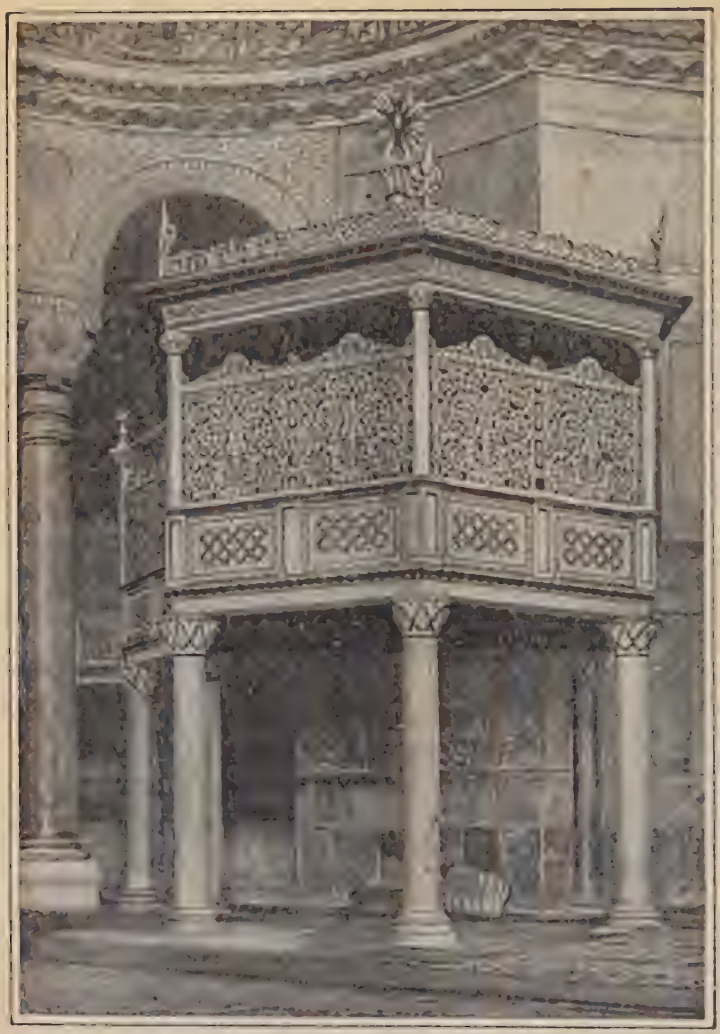
Some idea of the situation of the people under the Sultan's rule may be derived from the report of an English traveler, written in 1875. In the Turkish province of Bosnia he found that outside the large towns, where European consuls were present, neither the honor, property, nor lives of the Christians were safe, because the authorities were blind to any outrage committed by a Mohammedan. The Sultan's taxes were exorbitant, and most cruel methods were used to extort payment from the impoverished peasants. Further, the Turkish soldiers who were quartered in the villages were guilty of countless outrages.

827. The Bulgarian Atrocities (1876). A failure of crops aggravated the intolerable conditions, and an insurrection broke out in Bosnia in 1874 which set the whole Balkan Peninsula aflame. The Bulgarians around Philippopolis, incited to hopes of independence by the events in the states to the west, assassinated some of the Turkish officials and gave the Turks a pretext for the most terrible atrocities in the history of Turkish rule in Europe. Thousands of Bulgars were murdered in revenge.

828. European Powers fail to assist Bulgaria. While the European powers, in their usual fashion, were exchanging futile diplomatic notes on the situation, Serbia and Montenegro declared war on the Sultan, and the Christians in the Balkan region made a frantic appeal to the West for immediate help. A good deal naturally depended on the position taken by England, which was in alliance with Turkey. Gladstone, then leader of the Liberals, urged his countrymen to break the unholy alliance between England and "the unspeakable Turk." But the party in power was fearful that the Slavic rebels in the Sultan's

ST. SOPHIA, CONSTANTINOPLE, BUILT BY JUSTINIAN A.D. 532–537

Since the capture of Constantinople by the Turks (A.D. 1453) the vast church has served as a Mohammedan mosque



Interior of Mosque of St. Sophia, showing where the Sultan sits in Private Worship

dominions, if they gained independence, might ally themselves with England's enemy, Russia; they thought that in the interest of English trade any movement should be resisted which might destroy the power of the Sultan, who was less likely than Russia to interfere with England's Eastern commerce.

829. Russia defeats the Turks. The negotiations of the powers having come to nothing, Russia determined, in 1877, to act alone. Although the Turks fought well, Russia was victorious, and in 1878 a Russian army entered Adrianople. The Sultan was forced to sign a treaty with the Tsar and to recognize the independence of Serbia, Montenegro, Rumania, and Bulgaria.

830. The Berlin Congress in 1878. England and Austria had serious objections to this treaty, which increased the influence of Russia in the Balkan Peninsula. They accordingly forced Tsar Alexander II to submit the whole matter to the consideration of a general European congress at Berlin. After prolonged and stormy sessions the Congress of Berlin agreed that Serbia, Rumania, and little Montenegro should be regarded as entirely independent of Turkey, and that Bulgaria should also be independent, except for the payment of a tribute to the Sultan. Bosnia, where the insurrection had begun, and the small province of Herzegovina were practically taken from the Sultan and turned over to Austria to be occupied and administered by her. Russia was given a tract east of the Black Sea. A few years after the congress Bulgaria quietly annexed the neighboring province of Eastern Rumelia, thus adding to her own importance and further decreasing what little remained of Turkey in Europe.

831. Accession of Alexander III. The reign of Alexander III (1881–1894), son and successor of Alexander II, was a period of quiet, during which little progress seemed to be made. Occasional protests were answered by imprisonment, flogging, or exile, for Alexander III and his intimate advisers believed quite as firmly and religiously in autocracy as Nicholas I had done.

832. The Industrial Revolution overtakes Russia. It became increasingly difficult, however, to keep Russia "frozen," for

during the last quarter of the nineteenth century the spread of democratic ideas had been hastened by the coming of the steam engine, the factory, and the railroad, all of which served to unsettle the humdrum agricultural life which the great majority of the people had led for centuries.

The liberation of the serfs, with all its drawbacks, favored the growth of factories, for the peasants were sometimes permitted to leave their villages for the manufacturing centers

HARBIN, A CITY ON THE TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILWAY

Cities have sprung up along the great Russian railway just as they did along the transcontinental lines in the United States and Canada. This Western-looking town is northeast of Peking, in the farming country of Manchuria, nominally a part of the Chinese republic but in reality held by Russia

which were gradually growing up. If Napoleon could have come once more to Moscow in 1912, he would not have recognized the city which met his gaze in 1812. It had become one of the chief centers of the Russian textile industries, and the sound of a thousand looms and forges announced the creation of a new industrial world.

833. The Trans-Siberian Railroad. Along with this industrial development went the construction of great railway lines, built

largely by the government with money borrowed from capitalists in western Europe (Map 21). The greatest of all Russian railway undertakings was the Trans-Siberian road, which was rendered necessary for the transportation of soldiers and military supplies to the eastern boundary of the empire. Communication was established between St. Petersburg and the Pacific in 1900, and a branch line southward to Port Arthur was soon finished. One could, before the World War, travel with few changes of cars from Havre to Vladivostok, via Paris, Cologne, Berlin, Warsaw, Moscow, Irkutsk, on Lake Baikal, and Harbin, a distance of seventy-three hundred miles (Map 22).

V. The Russian Revolution under Nicholas II

834. Nicholas II dispels the Hopes of the Liberals. When Nicholas II succeeded his father, Alexander III, in 1894, he was but twenty-six years old, and there was some reason to hope that he would favor reform. Nicholas, however, quickly dispelled any illusions which his more liberal subjects entertained.

The repressive policy of this despotic government became worse as time went on. In 1902 an unpopular minister of the interior had been assassinated, and the Tsar had appointed a still more unpopular man in his place, namely Plehve, who was notorious for his success in hunting down those who criticized the government.

835. Massacres of the Jews. Plehve connived at the persecution of those among the Tsar's subjects who ventured to disagree with the doctrines of the Russian official Church, to which every Russian was supposed to belong. The Jews suffered especially. There were massacres at Kishinev and elsewhere in 1903 which horrified the Western world and drove hundreds of thousands of Jews to foreign lands, especially to the United States. There is good reason to believe that Plehve actually arranged and directed these massacres.

836. The Constitutional Liberal Groups. Plehve was mistaken, however, in his belief that all the trouble came from a

handful of fanatics. Among those who detested the cruel and corrupt government were the professional men, the university professors, the enlightened merchants and manufacturers, and the public-spirited portion of the nobility. These, although they were not organized into a party, came to be known as the Constitutional Democrats. They hoped for a parliament elected by the people, which would improve the lot of the peasants and the workingmen. They also urged freedom of speech and of the press, the right to hold public meetings for the discussion of important questions, and the abolition of the secret police and of religious persecution.

Nicholas II

837. The Social Democrats. The Social Democrats were followers of Karl Marx (§ 680) and looked forward to the time when the workingmen would assume control of the government and manage the land, the factories, and the mines in the interest of the whole population rather than for the benefit chiefly of the rich who owned them.

838. The Socialist Revolutionary Party. In contrast with these were those Russian agitators who belonged to the Socialist Revolutionary party, which was well organized and was responsible for many acts of violence during the years of the revolution. They maintained that it was right to make war upon the government, which was oppressing them and extorting money from the people to fill the pockets of dishonest officeholders. The party selected its victims from the most notoriously cruel

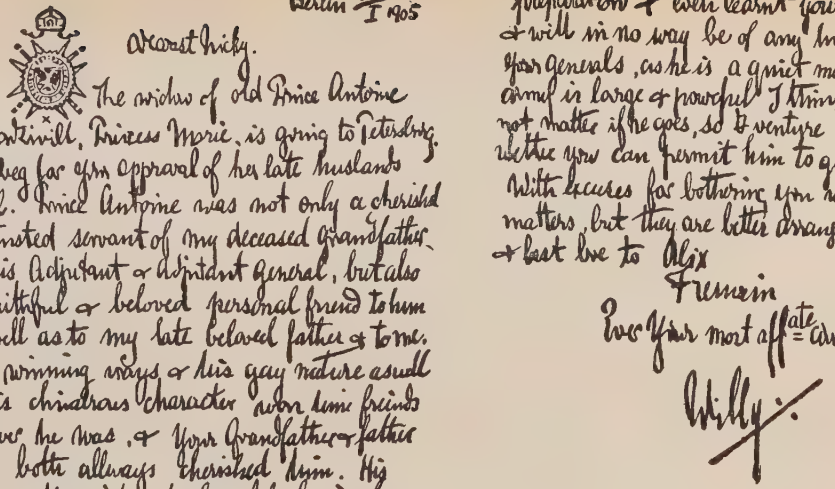
among the officials, and after an official had been killed it usually published a list of the offenses which had cost him his life. Lists of those selected for assassination were also prepared, after careful consideration, by their executive committee. The party did not practice, or in any way approve of, indiscriminate assassination, as is sometimes supposed.

839. Disastrous War with Japan (1904–1905). The more Plehve sought to stamp out all protest against the Tsar's government, the more its enemies increased, and at last, in 1904, the open revolution may be said to have begun. On February 5 of that year a war commenced with Japan, which was due to Russia's encroachments in Korea and her evident intention of permanently depriving China of her province of Manchuria. The Japanese were intent on securing Korea and, if possible, Manchuria, and feared the competition of so powerful a neighbor as Russia. The liberals in Russia attributed the conflict to bad management on the part of the Tsar's officials, and declared it to be inhuman and contrary to the interests of the people.

Whatever the cause, disaster was the outcome. The Japanese defeated the Russians in Manchuria in a series of terrific conflicts south of Mukden. In one long battle on the Sha Ho River sixty thousand Russians perished. Their fleets in the East were annihilated, and on January 1, 1905, Port Arthur fell, after one of the most terrible sieges on record.

In Russia the crops failed, and the starving peasants burned and plundered the houses and barns of the nobles, arguing that if the buildings were destroyed, the owners could not come back, and the Tsar's police could no longer make them their headquarters. Moreover, it became known that government officials had been stealing money which should have gone for rifles and supplies, and even funds of the Red Cross Society for aiding the wounded.

840. "Red Sunday" (January 22, 1905). On Sunday, January 22, 1905, a fearful event occurred. The workingmen of St. Petersburg had sent a petition to the Tsar and had informed him that on Sunday they would march to the palace humbly to



Berlin 15/I 1905

Dearest Nicky.

The widow of old Prince Antoine Radziwill, Princess Marie, is going to Petersburg to beg for your approval of her late husbands will. Prince Antoine was not only a cherished & trusted servant of my deceased Grandfather as his Adjutant & Adjutant General, but also a faithful & beloved personal friend to him as well as to my late beloved father & to me. His winning ways & his gay nature as well as his chivalrous character won him friends wherever he was, & Your Grandfather & father have both always cherished him. His wife was the intimate long-life friend of my late mother, & has been made testatrix by her husband for his will. The whole future of her children & family rests on the fact of your kind approval of the will, & I venture to

preparation & even learnt your language & will in no way be of any hindrance to your generals, as he is a quiet man, as the army is large & powerful I think that it does not matter if he goes, so I venture again to ask whether you can permit him to go?

With excuses for bothering you with all these matters, but they are better arranged between ourselves.

& best love to Alix

Ever Your most affte cousin & friend

Willy.

Note. The Kaiser and the Tsar carried on for many years an informal, nonofficial correspondence with each other in English. "Willy," who was nearly ten years the elder, gives "Nicky" much advice.

Opening and Close of a "Willy and Nicky" Letter

Courtesy of the *Chicago Daily News*

pray him in person to consider their sufferings, since they had no faith in his officials or ministers. When Sunday morning came, masses of men, women, and children, wholly unarmed, attempted to approach the Winter Palace in the pathetic hope that the "Little Father," as they called the Tsar, would listen to their woes. Instead, the Cossacks tried to disperse them with their whips, and then the troops which guarded the palace shot and cut down hundreds and wounded thousands in a conflict

THE WINTER PALACE, PETROGRAD

The massacre on "Red Sunday" took place in front of this magnificent palace of the Tsar

which continued all day. "Red Sunday" was, however, only the most impressive of many similar encounters between citizens and the Tsar's police and guards.

841. Establishment of a Russian Parliament (Duma). Some months after this tragedy the Tsar at last yielded to public opinion and on August 19, 1905, agreed to summon a Russian parliament (*Duma*), which should thereafter give Russia's autocratic ruler *advice* in making the laws.

He and his advisers were soon pushed somewhat farther along the path of reform by a general strike which began in the following October. All the railroads stopped running; in all the

great towns the shops, except those that dealt in provisions, were closed; gas and electricity were no longer furnished; the law courts ceased their duties; and even the apothecaries refused to prepare prescriptions until reforms should be granted.

The situation soon became intolerable, and on October 29 the Tsar announced that he had ordered "the government" to grant the people freedom of conscience and speech, and the right to hold meetings. The right to vote for members of the Duma was to be extended. Lastly, he agreed "to establish an immutable rule that no law can come into force without the approval of the Duma."

The Tsar's ministers would not coöperate with the Duma in any important measures of reform, and on June 21 Nicholas II declared that he was "cruelly disappointed" because the people's representatives had not confined themselves to their proper duties and had commented upon many matters which belonged to him. He accordingly dissolved the Duma, as he had a perfect right to do, and fixed March 5, 1907, as the date for the meeting of a new Duma.

842. Atrocities and Disorder continue. The revolutionists made an unsuccessful attempt in August to blow up the Tsar's chief minister in his country house and continued to assassinate governors and police officials. The armed bands known as the "Black Hundreds," on the other hand, went on massacring Jews and liberals, while the government established courts-martial to insure the speedy trial and immediate execution of revolutionists. In the two months of September and October, 1906, these courts summarily condemned three hundred persons to be shot or hanged. During the whole year some nine thousand persons were killed or wounded for alleged offenses against the government.

843. Famine added to the Other Disasters. A terrible famine was afflicting the land at the end of the year, and it was discovered that a member of the Tsar's ministry had been stealing the money appropriated to furnish grain to the dying peasants. An observer who had traveled eight hundred miles through the

TSAR NICHOLAS II AT THE OPENING OF THE FIRST DUMA

famine-stricken district reported that he did not find a single village where the peasants had food enough for themselves or their cattle. In some places the peasants were so badly off that they were reduced to eating bark from the trees and the straw used for their thatch roofs.

844. The Dumas oppose the Tsar's Ministers. The Tsar continued to summon the Duma regularly, but so changed the suffrage that only the conservative sections of the nation were represented, and his officials did all they could to keep out liberal deputies. In spite of this the fourth Duma, elected in 1912, showed much independence in opposing the oppressive rule of the Tsar's ministers. Although parliamentary government was by no means won in Russia, many important reforms were achieved. The Tsar retained the title of "Autocrat of all the Russias" until he was forced to abdicate in 1917, and his officials went on violating all the principles of liberty, and persecuting those who ventured to criticize the government. The great revolution which overtook Russia as a result of the World War will be described later (Chapter XLI).

QUESTIONS

I. What different peoples make up the Russian empire? Prepare a list of the Tsars of the nineteenth century with their dates. How did Alexander I rule? How had Poland been left by the Congress of Vienna? What resulted from its rebellion in 1831? State the arguments for and against autocracy in Russia. What did Nicholas I do to check the growth of liberalism?

II. Review the extension of the Turkish empire in Europe. Why did Russia wish to extend her influence in Turkey? How did Serbia and Greece gain their independence? What were the results of the Crimean War?

III. Describe the conditions of the serfs in Russia in the early nineteenth century. What were the results of the emancipation of the serfs? State the arguments of the terrorists.

IV. Describe the conditions of the people under the Sultan's rule. Why did the European powers fail to interfere in the Bulgarian atrocities? What settlement of the Balkan situation was made at the Berlin Congress? Describe the effects of the Industrial Revolution in Russia.

V. Describe the policy of repression favored by the Tsars of the nineteenth century. Describe the political parties under Nicholas II. What were the circumstances of the Russo-Japanese War? Describe the "Red Sunday." Why was the Russian parliament unsuccessful?

CHAPTER XXXVII

HOW EUROPEAN HISTORY MERGED INTO WORLD HISTORY

I. The Growth of International Trade and Competition; Imperialism

845. How the World has been brought together by Modern Business. As a result of the Industrial Revolution, Europe became a busy world of shops and factories, which produced much more than Europeans could use. So new markets were constantly sought in distant parts of the world. The trade with the Far East, which, as we have seen, led to the discovery of America, had grown in the nineteenth century to an enormous extent, scattering the wares of England, Germany, France, and Italy through China and India and the islands of the Pacific. The eagerness to secure world trade is one of the great facts of modern history, for it led the European nations to plant new colonies and to try to monopolize markets in Asia and Africa and wherever else they could. This business rivalry fostered jealousies and conflicts between the European states, and it was one of the causes of the World War.

846. The Steamship. The prodigious expansion of commerce was made possible by the discovery that steam could be used to carry goods cheaply and speedily to all parts of the earth. Steamships and railways have made the world one great market place.

The problem of using steam to propel ships had long occupied inventors, but the honor of making the steamship a success commercially belongs to Robert Fulton. In the spring of 1807 he launched his *Clermont* at New York, and in the autumn of that year the "new water monster" made its famous trip to Albany. Transoceanic steam navigation began in 1819

with the voyage of the steamer *Savannah* from Savannah to Liverpool, which took twenty-five days, sails being used to help the engine. The *Great Western*, which startled the world in 1838 by steaming from Bristol to New York in fifteen days and ten hours, was a ship of 1378 tons, 212 feet long, with a daily consumption of 36 tons of coal.[1] A commercial map of the world today (Map 20) shows that the globe is crossed in every direction by definite routes which are followed by innumerable freight and passenger steamers passing regularly from one port to another, and few of all these thousands of ships are as small as the famous *Great Western*.

847. The Suez Canal completed in 1869. The East and the West have been brought much nearer together by the piercing of the Isthmus of Suez, which formerly barred the way from the Mediterranean Sea to the Indian Ocean. This enterprise was carried out under the direction of the great French engineer Ferdinand de Lesseps. After ten years of work the canal was opened to traffic in November, 1869.

848. Panama Canal. The construction of a canal through the Isthmus of Panama was undertaken in 1881 by a French company organized by De Lesseps; but the company failed, and in 1902 the Congress of the United States authorized the President to purchase for forty million dollars the property in which the French investors had sunk so much money. Arrangements with the republic of Colombia for the construction of the canal by the United States having come to naught, the state of Panama, through which the line of the proposed canal passed, seceded from Colombia in 1903, and its independence was immediately recognized by President Roosevelt. A treaty in regard to the canal zone was then duly concluded with the new republic, and after some delays the work of the French company was resumed by the United States and practically completed in 1915.

[1] Compare this with the *Lusitania*, which had a tonnage of 32,500 tons, engines of 68,000 horse power, was 785 feet long, and carried a supply of over 5000 tons of coal for its journey across the Atlantic, which lasted less than five days. Later vessels have been constructed of over 50,000 tons.

849. Development of Railroads. Just as the gigantic modern steamship has taken the place of the schooner for the rapid trade of the world, so, on land, the merchandise which used to be dragged by means of horses and oxen or carried in slow canal boats is being transported in long trains of capacious cars, each of which holds as much as fifteen or twenty large wagons. The story of the locomotive, like that of the spinning machine or steam engine, is the history of many experiments and their final combination by a successful inventor, George Stephenson.

An Early Locomotive

In 1814 Stephenson built a small locomotive, known as *Puffing Billy*, which was used at the mines; and in 1825, with the authorization of Parliament, he opened between Stockton and Darlington, in the northern part of England, a line for the conveyance of passengers and freight. About this time a road was being projected between Liverpool and Manchester, and in an open competition, in which five locomotives were entered, Stephenson's *Rocket* was chosen for the new railroad, which was formally opened in 1830. This famous engine weighed about seven tons and ran at an average speed of thirteen miles an hour—a small affair when compared with the giant locomotive of our day, weighing a hundred tons and running fifty miles an hour. Within fifteen years trains were running regularly between Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham,

and London, and at the close of the century Great Britain had twenty-two thousand miles of railway carrying over a billion passengers annually.

850. Spread of Railways. The first railway in France was opened in 1828 and the first in Germany in 1835. Europe is now bound together by a network of over two hundred thousand miles of railway, and railway construction was before the World War rapidly advancing in Africa and Asia, preparing cheap outlets for the products of Western mills and mines. As we have seen, the Trans-Siberian road connected Europe overland with the Pacific (§ 833), and Russia also pushed lines southward toward Persia and Afghanistan. British India has over thirty-five thousand miles of railway, and the importance of the new roads in China and Turkey became so great as to involve rival European nations, each of which wished to control them.

851. The Possibility of World "News." Quite as essential to the world market as railway and steamship lines are the easy and inexpensive means of communication afforded by the post, telephone, telegraph, and cable. The English "penny post" is now so commonplace as no longer to excite wonder, but to men of Frederick the Great's time it would have seemed impossible. In England, until 1839, the postage on an ordinary letter was a shilling for a short distance. In that year a reform measure long advocated by Rowland Hill was passed, establishing a uniform penny post throughout Great Britain. Other European countries followed the example of Great Britain in reducing postage, and before long a letter could be sent almost anywhere in the world for five cents.

852. Telegraph and Telephone Lines. No less wonderful is the development of the telegraph system. Cables have been laid under the ocean, connecting all countries. Distant and obscure places in Africa and Asia have been brought into close touch with one another and with Europe. China now has lines connecting all the important cities of the republic and affording direct overland communication between Peking and Paris. In October, 1907, Marconi established regular communication

across the Atlantic by means of the wireless system of telegraphy discovered some years before; and now the wireless telephone can carry the voice from Washington to Paris.

853. Competition for Foreign Markets. The Industrial Revolution which enabled Europe to produce far more goods than it could sell in its own markets, and the rapid transportation which permitted producers to distribute their commodities over the whole surface of the globe, combined to produce a keen competition for foreign markets, as we have seen. The European nations secured the control of practically all the territory occupied by less progressive peoples in Africa and Asia, and introduced Western ideas of business into China and Japan, where steamships now ply the navigable rivers and railroads are being rapidly built.

854. Foreign Investments. The process of colonization and of Westernizing the oriental peoples was further hastened by European and American capitalists investing in railroads, mines, and oil wells in backward countries. At the opening of the twentieth century Great Britain alone had about ten billion dollars invested abroad; one fifth of the Russian industrial enterprises were financed by foreigners, who were also to a considerable extent constructing the railroads in China. The Germans supplied the money for large banking concerns in Brazil, Buenos Aires, and Valparaiso, which in turn stimulated industry and the construction of railways in South America.

855. Imperialism in its Various Forms. These two great forces—manufacturers seeking markets for their goods and men of wealth seeking investment—effected the foreign and commercial relations of every important European country. They alone explain why the great manufacturing nations embarked on a policy of so-called *imperialism*, which means the business of adding distant territories for the purpose of controlling their products, getting the trade with the natives, and investing money in the development of natural resources. Sometimes this imperialism took the form of outright annexation at the desire of the natives, such as the acquisition of Hawaii by the United

States; again, it assumed the form of a "protectorate," which is a declaration on the part of a nation to the effect that "this particular piece of foreign land is ours; we are not intending to take all the responsibility of governing it just now, but we want other nations to keep out, for we may annex it sooner or later." Sometimes imperialism went no farther than the securing of concessions or privileges in undeveloped countries, such as foreigners obtained in China or citizens of the United States in Mexico.

856. The Missionary as an Agent of Imperialism. The way for imperialism was smoothed by the missionaries. There have always been ardent Christians ready to obey the command "Go ye into all the world and preach the gospel to every creature" (Mark xvi, 15). No sooner was a new country brought to the attention of Europeans than missionaries flocked thither along with the traders and soldiers.

Missionaries not only have spread the knowledge of the Christian religion, but have carried with them modern scientific ideas and modern inventions. They have reduced to writing the languages of peoples previously ignorant of the existence of an alphabet. Their physicians have introduced scientific methods of treating the sick, and their schools have given an education to millions who without them would have been left in complete barbarism. Finally, they have encouraged thousands of Japanese, Chinese, and representatives of other peoples to visit Europe and America and thus prepare themselves to become apostles of Western ideas among their fellows. The missionaries have also created a demand for Western goods and opened the way for trade.

II. Relations of Europe with China and Japan

857. Early Knowledge of China. The relations of Europe to China extend back into ancient times. Some of the Roman emperors, including Marcus Aurelius, sent embassies to the Chinese monarchs, and in the Middle Ages some missionaries

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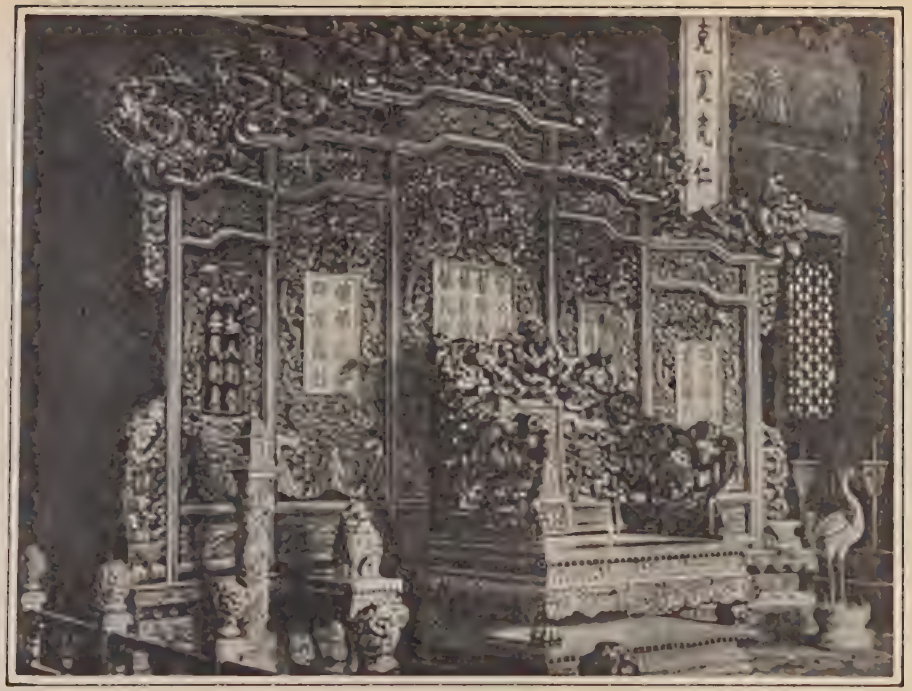
THE GREAT WALL OF NORTHERN CHINA

This wall, fifteen to thirty feet high, fifteen to twenty-five feet broad, and fourteen hundred miles long, was built in the third century B.C. and extended in the sixteenth century of the Christian Era



CHINESE THRONE

labored to introduce Christianity into China. It was not, however, until after the opening of the water route around the Cape of Good Hope that European trade with China became important. Early in the sixteenth century Portuguese merchants appeared in Chinese harbors, offering Western merchandise in exchange for tea and silks. In 1557 the Portuguese rented a bit of land in Macao, off Canton—a post which they hold today.

Harbor of Hongkong, with a Modern Steamship and an Old-fashioned Chinese Boat called a "Junk"

858. How European Business Men forced their Way into China. However, the Chinese did not welcome foreign interference. Their officials regarded the European merchants as barbarians. Nevertheless, Dutch and English merchants flocked to Canton, the sole port at which the Chinese emperor permitted regular commerce with foreign countries.

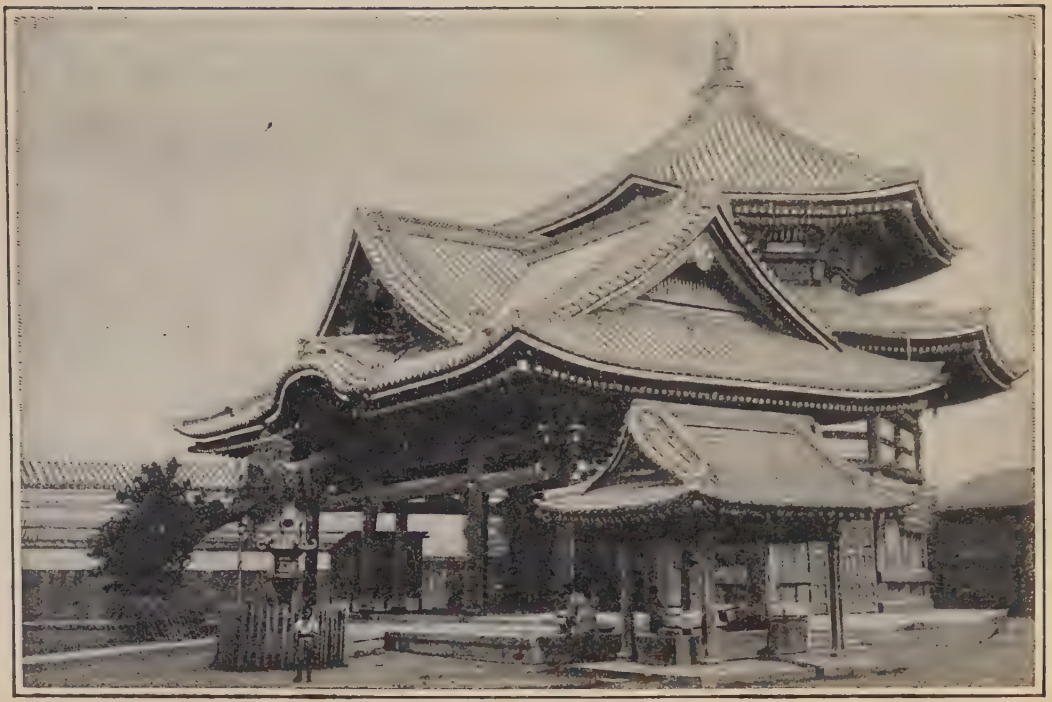
When, in 1839, the Chinese government tried to put a stop to the opium trade, carried on with great profit by English merchants, and informed the British government that the traffic would have to be given up, the so-called Opium War broke out.

The British, of course, with their modern means of warfare, were speedily victorious, and the Chinese were forced to agree, in the Treaty of Nanking, to pay a heavy indemnity, to cede to the British the island of Hongkong, which lies at the mouth of the Canton River, and to open to foreign commerce four ports, including Shanghai, on the same terms as those that held for Canton. The United States, taking advantage of this war, secured similar commercial privileges in 1844.

859. The French and Others in China. From the Opium War to the present date China has been troubled with foreign invasions. Napoleon III, supported by the English, waged war on China in 1858 and compelled the emperor to open new ports to European trade, including Tientsin, which was dangerously near the Chinese capital of Peking. But it was not only the distant Europeans who longed to get control of Chinese trade. There was a neighboring business rival, Japan.

860. The Extraordinary History of Japan. To the northeast of China lies a long group of islands which, if they lay off the eastern coast of North America, would extend from Maine to Georgia. This archipelago, comprising four main islands and some four thousand smaller ones, is the center of the Japanese empire. Fifty years ago Japan was still almost completely isolated from the rest of the world; but now, through a series of extraordinary events, she has become one of the conspicuous members of the family of nations. Her people, who are somewhat more numerous than the inhabitants of the British Isles, resemble the Chinese in appearance and owe to China the beginnings of their culture and their art.

861. Commodore Perry and the Modernizing of Japan. During the sixteenth century Dutch and English traders carried on some business in Japan, but they, as well as the missionaries, became disliked and were all driven out. For nearly two centuries Japan cut herself off almost entirely from the outer world. In 1853 and 1854 Commodore Perry entered the Bay of Tokyo (Yedo) with a small fleet, but sufficient to induce the Japanese to conclude a treaty opening two ports to American ships. The



THE HEXAGONAL TEMPLE AT KYOTO

AVENUE OF STONE LANTERNS IN UYENO PARK, TOKYO

The gate in the background, a "torii," marks the entrance to a Shinto temple dedicated to the ancient gods of Japan, who were worshiped before the introduction of Buddhism in the seventh century of the Christian Era

Japanese decided that they must acquaint themselves with European science and inventions if they hoped to protect themselves against European encroachments. In 1871 feudalism was abolished, serfdom was done away with, and the army and navy were rapidly remodeled on a European pattern. In 1889 a constitution was established providing for a parliament. Factories were built, several thousand miles of railroad were constructed, and Japan was pretty thoroughly modernized within a generation.

862. The War between Japan and China and Russia's Intervention. Japan, having become a manufacturing people, wished to extend her trade and was specially anxious to get control of the neighboring Korea, which was claimed by China. The Japanese easily defeated the Chinese in a short war (1894–1895). Korea was declared independent (which practically meant opening it up to Japan). Russia, however, intervened to discourage the Japanese from getting a foothold on the mainland by inducing China to permit her to build a railroad across Manchuria and to lease Port Arthur to her. This she fortified and connected by rail with the Trans-Siberian Railroad.

863. The Germans in Shantung. Meanwhile the Germans found an excuse for strengthening themselves in the same region. A German missionary having been murdered in the province of Shantung, which lies opposite Korea, a German squadron appeared in Kiaochow Bay, in November, 1897, landed a force of marines, and raised the German flag. As a compensation for the murder of the missionary, Germany demanded a long lease of the town of Kiaochow on the Shantung peninsula, with the right to build railways in the region and work mines. Upon acquiring Kiaochow the Germans built harbors and constructed forts, military barracks, and machine shops. In short, a German town was constructed on the Chinese coast, which, with its defenses, was designed to form a base for further extension of Germany's sphere of influence.

864. Great Britain gets a Foothold in Northern China; Treaty with Japan. Great Britain, learning of the negotiations, sent

a fleet northward from Hongkong to the Gulf of Chihli (or Pechili) and forced China to lease to her Weihaiwei, just between the recent acquisitions of Germany and of Russia.

England, moreover, believed it to be for her interest to be on good terms with Japan, and in 1902 an offensive and defensive alliance was concluded between the two powers, binding each to assist the other in case a third party joined in a conflict in which either was involved. For example, England, under the provisions, would have to aid Japan in a war with Russia, should France or Germany intervene on Russia's side.

The foreigners were by no means content with establishing trading posts in China; they longed to develop the neglected natural resources of the empire, to open up communication by railroads and steamships, and to Westernize the Orientals, in order that business might be carried on more easily with them and new opportunities be found for making money for Western investors.

865. The Boxer Rebellion (1900). The Chinese at first opposed the building of railroads, but several thousand miles of track were laid and many other lines planned. Telegraphs and post offices of the European type were established. In 1898, after the war with Japan, China began to remodel her army and to send her students to study in foreign universities. These changes aroused the violent opposition of a party known as the "Boxers," who hated the missionaries and business men from the Western countries. They declared that the new ideas would ruin China and that the European powers would tear China to pieces if given a chance.

In June, 1900, the Boxers killed the German ambassador and besieged the Europeans in Peking, and appeared to be on the point of massacring them all. The foreign powers — Japan, Russia, Great Britain, the United States, France, and Germany — immediately collected a joint army which fought its way from the coast to Peking and brought relief to their imperiled fellow countrymen in the Chinese capital. The European troops looted the palace of the Chinese emperor, and China was forced to pay

WOMEN SERVING TEA IN A JAPANESE HOUSE

The Japanese use very little furniture and kneel on the straw mats which cover the floor. Glass is rarely used, but the sashes are covered with translucent rice paper

JAPANESE TEA HOUSE AND GARDEN

The Japanese are much given to tea drinking, and there are many tea houses scattered throughout the country. Like the temples, monasteries, and hotels they often have very beautiful gardens

an indemnity of three hundred and twenty millions of dollars and pledged itself to suppress the Boxers and every society that was opposed to the presence of foreigners.

After the trouble in Peking was over, the Chinese government took up the reforms once more, and in 1906 a proclamation was issued promising that a Chinese parliament should be established and the old system of absolute rule abandoned forever.

866. Russia in Manchuria. Scarcely had the Boxer rising been put down when it became apparent that Japan and Russia were drifting into war. Russia refused to evacuate Manchuria, a province of China, and insisted on getting a hold in Korea, even sending Cossacks to build forts there. Japan declared that Russia had repeatedly promised to withdraw her troops from Manchuria and had agreed that Korea should be independent. As the Tsar's government gave the Japanese no satisfaction, they boldly went to war with Russia in February, 1904.

867. Russo-Japanese War. Japan was well prepared for war and was, moreover, within easy reach of the field of conflict. The Russian government, on the contrary, was corrupt and inefficient and was already engaged in a terrible struggle with the Russian people. The eastern boundary of European Russia lay three thousand miles from Port Arthur, and the only means of communication was the single line of badly constructed railroad that stretched across Siberia to the Pacific.

The Japanese laid siege to Port Arthur, and for months the world watched in suspense the deadly attacks which the Japanese made upon the Russian fortress. On January 1, 1905, after a siege of seven months, Port Arthur surrendered.

Russia, meanwhile, dispatched its Baltic squadron to the Orient. It arrived in May in the straits of Korea, where Admiral Togo was waiting for it. The Tsar's fleet was practically annihilated in a few hours, with terrible loss of life, while the Japanese came out of the conflict almost unscathed.

868. Treaty of Portsmouth. Lest the war should drag on indefinitely, President Roosevelt, acting under the provisions of the Hague Convention (§ 924), took measures which brought

about a peace. The conference between the representatives of Japan and Russia was held at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, and on September 5 the Treaty of Portsmouth was signed. This recognized the Japanese influence as paramount in Korea, which, however, was to remain independent.[1] Both the Japanese and the Russians were to evacuate Manchuria; the Japanese were, nevertheless, given the rights in the Liaotung peninsula and Port Arthur which Russia had formerly enjoyed.

DEPOSED YOUNG EMPEROR OF CHINA

Hsuan Tung, the last of the Manchu dynasty, became emperor at the age of three and was forced to abdicate in 1912 when seven years old. He was permitted to retain his title and given a palace in which to reside

869. China becomes a Republic. Thus this great conflict produced by the rivalry of the European powers in the East was brought to an end, but the resources of China and the fact that it had not yet organized a strong army or navy encouraged foreign powers to continue their interference in Chinese affairs. Nevertheless, China was changing rapidly as Japan had formerly done. Students returning home from Western countries determined to overthrow the Manchu (or Manchurian) dynasty, which had ruled for two hundred and sixty-seven years, and their corrupt officials. After a short struggle they forced the court, on February 12, 1912, to declare the abdication of the boy-emperor then on the throne and the creation of a republic.

[1] The Japanese have not left Korea independent. They immediately took control of the administration, and, finally, by the treaty of August 23, 1910, Korea was annexed to the Japanese empire.

DR. SUN YAT-SEN

This ardent Republican embodied the soul of the Chinese revolution. He was born in 1866. After studying medicine he determined to devote his life to the overthrow of the Manchu dynasty and the establishment of a Chinese republic. He spent a considerable period in the United States. When the revolution was finally successful, he was chosen provisional president of the new republic, but gave way to Yuan Shih-kai, China's first president. He died in 1925

YUAN SHIH-KAI, FIRST PRESIDENT OF THE CHINESE REPUBLIC, AND HIS SECRETARY

A very able general, who was anxious for reform but feared that it would be forced prematurely on the country by the ardent Republicans led by Sun Yat-sen. He tried to make himself emperor, but this was opposed by the foreign powers, especially Japan, who feared his ability. He died in 1916

870. China's Troubles with its Government. The president of the new republic, Yuan Shih-kai, posed as a revolutionist but really longed to be the successor of the old Manchu dynasty. He soon fell out with the National Convention over the powers which were to be enjoyed by the president, and the radicals, realizing their mistake, attempted to bring about a second revolution. When, however, this revolt failed, Yuan Shih-kai proceeded to make himself dictator and to work toward re-establishing the monarchy. He appointed military governors (tuchuns) over the provinces to assist him in keeping the country under his control. After his death (June, 1916) the tuchuns began to fight among themselves for supremacy, and the next president and parliament were entirely in their power. The unconstitutional methods at Peking led to a violent protest by the radical party in the South, and an independent government was set up in Canton under the leadership of Dr. Sun Yat-sen. It is very difficult to follow the confused history of China since the establishment of the so-called republic. The rival generals have carried on incessant warfare to gain control; brigands have overrun the land and made the life of foreigner and native unsafe. In 1924 a group of chieftains combined to form a unified government under the presidency of Tuan Chi-jui. At first this arrangement seemed to promise improvement; but the Peking government showed itself unable to bring order in China, and fighting and disorder continued as before. In April, 1926, Tuan Chi-jui, who had lost the confidence of his supporters, was deposed, and General Wang Muan-Ching was appointed to take charge of affairs in Peking.

III. Partition of Africa

871. The "Dark Continent." The last great region to attract the attention of Europeans looking for trade was Africa. Little was known of the interior before 1870. Between 1850 and 1880 many explorers braved the torrid heat, and the dangers from disease, savages, and wild beasts, to discover the sources of the

Nile and to trace the courses of the Zambezi and the upper Congo rivers. Of these Livingstone and Stanley are best known.

Stanley's famous journey through the heart of "Darkest Africa" naturally aroused the intense interest of all the European powers, and within ten years after his triumphant return to Marseille in 1878 almost the whole surface of Africa had been divided among the European powers or marked out into "spheres of influence." A generation ago a map of Africa was for the most part based on mere conjecture, except along the coast; today it is traversed by boundary lines surveyed almost as carefully as those which separate the various European countries.

872. France in Africa. France has almost the whole of the northwestern shoulder of the continent, from the mouth of the Congo to Tunis. To be sure, a very considerable portion of the French claim is nothing but a desert, totally useless in its present state. On the east coast of Africa France controls French Somaliland. The French also hold the island of Madagascar.

873. German Africa. Between 1884 and 1890 Germany acquired four considerable areas of African territory—Togoland, the Cameroons, German Southwest Africa, and German East Africa, which included together nearly a million square miles. The Germans attempted to develop these regions by building railways and schools and expending enormous sums in other ways, but the wars with the natives and the failure to develop much commerce left the experiment one of doubtful value.

874. Belgium and the Congo Free State. Wedged in between German East Africa and the French Congo is the Belgian Congo. King Leopold of Belgium organized a company in 1876 to explore this region and later announced that he regarded himself as the ruler of the vast territories of the company. The conduct of this company illustrates the way in which the European invaders were tempted to force the natives to work. The savage natives, accustomed to a free life in the jungle, did not enjoy

laying railroad ties, collecting rubber juice, or draining swamps for Belgian capitalists. The company, therefore, required native chiefs to furnish a certain number of workmen, and on their failure to supply the demand their villages were often burned. The company also required the natives to deliver a certain quantity of rubber each year; failure to comply with

Victoria Falls

These falls are twice the height of Niagara and over a mile wide. They are situated about midway in the two-thousand-mile course of the Zambezi River. The picture was taken from the Cape-to-Cairo Railway Bridge, which was built in 1905

these demands was cruelly punished. Protests in Europe and America led the Belgian ministry, in 1908, to assume complete ownership of this territory, heretofore called the Congo Free State, which now took the name of the Belgian Congo.

875. The Position of Egypt. South Africa, as has already been explained (§§ 803 ff.), had fallen to the English. They also gained important territories on the east coast running inland to the great lakes of Africa. But more important, in some ways, was their control over Egypt, which they enjoyed until the end

of the World War. That ancient seat of civilization had, as we have seen (§ 193), been conquered by the Arabs in the seventh century. Through the later Middle Ages it was ruled by a curious military class known as the Mamelukes and fell to the Ottoman Turks only in 1517. With the decline of the Sultan's power the country came under the domination of the Mameluke leaders, and it was against these that Bonaparte fought in 1798. Shortly after Nelson and the English had frustrated Bonaparte's attempt to bring Egypt under French rule a military adventurer from Albania, Mehemet Ali, compelled the Sultan to recognize him as governor of Egypt in 1805. A few years later he brought about the massacre of the Mamelukes and began a series of reforms. He built up an army and a fleet, and not only brought all Egypt under his sway but established himself at Khartum, where he could control the Sudan, or region of the upper Nile. Before his death, in 1849, he had induced the Sultan to recognize his heirs as rightful rulers, Khedives, of Egypt.

876. The British in Egypt. The importance of Egypt for the Western powers was greatly increased by the construction of the Suez Canal, begun in 1859, for both Port Said on the Mediterranean and Suez on the Red Sea are Egyptian ports. The English were able to get a foothold in Egypt through the improvidence of the Egyptian ruler Ismail I, who came to the throne in 1863. By reckless extravagance Ismail involved his country in a heavy debt, which forced him to sell a block of his canal shares to the British government. Still heavily in debt, however, Ismail was forced by his English and French creditors to let them oversee his financial administration. This foreign intervention aroused discontent in Egypt, and the natives revolted in 1882, demanding "Egypt for the Egyptians." Inasmuch as France declined to join in suppressing the rebellion, England undertook it alone, and after putting down the uprising assumed a temporary occupation of the country and the supervision of the army and finances of Egypt. After the rebellion of 1882 the British continued their "temporary" occupation

until shortly after the opening of the World War of 1914, when England assumed a protectorate over Egypt.

877. Conquest of the Sudan. Soon after the British occupation of Egypt, trouble arose in the Sudan, where a revolt against the Khedive's government was organized under the leadership of Mohammed Ahmed, who claimed to be the Messiah and found great numbers of fanatical followers who called him El Mahdi, "the leader." General Gordon was in charge of the British garrison at Khartum. Here he was besieged by the followers of the Mahdi in 1885 and after a memorable defense fell a victim to their fury, thus adding a tragic page to the military history of the British Empire. This disaster was avenged twelve years later, when in 1897–1898 the Sudan was reconquered and the city of Khartum was taken by the British under General Kitchener.

878. Prosperity of Egypt. During the occupation of Egypt by the British the progress of the country was unquestioned; industry and commerce developed steadily, public works were constructed, and financial order reëstablished under the supervision of the British agent, whose word was law. A large dam was built across the Nile at Aswan to control the floods. There was strict honesty in the government, and Egypt had never, in all its long history, been so prosperous. Nevertheless, there was a party strongly opposed to the British control which claimed that Egypt should be ruled by Egyptians (Chapter XLII).

IV. Decline of the Spanish Empire and Rise of the United States as a World Power

879. American Expansion. In striking contrast to the other powers of Europe, occupied with colonial expansion, stand the two countries which in the era of discovery led them all in enterprise and achievement—Spain and Portugal.[1] Spain, who

[1] Portugal, which lost its greatest possession, Brazil, about the same time that Spain lost its South American colonies, still retains considerable stretches of Africa, as a glance at the map will show (Map 23), but its holdings in Asia are reduced to the posts of Macao in China and Goa in India. In foreign affairs it has been closely allied with England. In 1910 the monarchy was overthrown and Portugal became a republic.

once could boast that the sun never set on her empire, had been in decline since the days of Philip II. After losing her colonies on the American continents in the early nineteenth century (§ 656) she made no further gains in the other parts of the world to offset her losses.

In the meantime there was rising to predominance in North America a nation that was destined to deal the final blow to the Spanish empire. In the universal search for trade American business men were in no respect behind their European competitors. The natural resources of the United States and the skill of the American people placed that country among the first commercial powers of the whole world. At the same time the American territorial possessions were increased in the Atlantic and the Pacific. In 1867 Alaska was purchased from Russia. In 1878 a coaling station was secured in the Samoan Islands, and later one of the islands was brought under the United States flag. In 1898 the Hawaiian Islands were annexed. In that same year came the clash between the United States and Spain, which put an end to Spanish dominion in the New World.

880. The Spanish-American War (1898). The cause of this war was the chronic disturbance which existed in Cuba under Spanish government and which led the United States to decide upon the expulsion of Spain from the Western Hemisphere. In 1895 the last of many Cuban insurrections against Spain broke out, and sympathy was immediately manifested in the United States. In February, 1898, the battleship *Maine* was mysteriously blown up in the harbor of Habana, where it had been sent in American interests. Although the cause of this disaster could not be discovered, the United States, maintaining that the conditions in Cuba were intolerable, declared war on Spain in April.

The war was brief, for the American forces were everywhere victorious. Cuba and Porto Rico were lost to Spain, and by the capture of the city of Manila in May the Philippine Islands also fell to the United States. Peace was reëstablished in August, and representatives were shortly sent to Paris to arrange the final terms. Cuba was declared independent; Porto Rico and

the Philippines were ceded to the United States. The following year the Caroline Islands were transferred to Germany, and thus the territory of Spain was reduced to the Spanish peninsula, a few islands, and her small holdings in Africa.

881. Latin-American Relations of the United States. Many forces conspired to extend the influence of the United States into Mexico, Central and South America, and the Caribbean. In

Pan-American Union in Washington

general the Latin-American peoples were formed from an amalgamation of native and European races, both inexperienced in the art of self-government. They were rich in natural resources but backward in industries. They needed capital to develop their business and foreign enterprise to start their factories and railways. They were plagued by many revolutions that resulted in the destruction of life and property. As they were near neighbors, the United States could not avoid taking an interest in their affairs. A Pan-American Congress, composed of delegates from nineteen countries of Latin America, first met in Washington in 1889 to discuss mutual interests. A

bureau of American republics—later called the Pan-American Union—was founded in Washington and a handsome building erected to house it (see picture on preceding page).

882. The Venezuela Dispute. An old dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela over the boundary line of British Guiana roused the interest of the United States, which offered to arbitrate. This offer was rejected by the British prime minister, Lord Salisbury, who declared that the matter did not concern the United States. President Cleveland determined, however, to maintain the Monroe Doctrine (§ 659), and urged Congress, December, 1895, to take the decision in hand, even at the risk of war with England. Parliament, horrified by the idea of a war between the two great English-speaking peoples, proposed that the matter be settled by arbitration, which was done.

883. Dollar Diplomacy. During President Wilson's administrations Haiti, Santo Domingo, and Nicaragua became American protectorates, at least for the time being. The extension of American control over the last-named republics grew out of what was called "dollar diplomacy"; namely, intervention by the United States to assure the payment of debts due to foreign creditors. President Roosevelt had held that, as the Monroe Doctrine would not permit European governments to collect debts by force, the United States was in duty bound to assume a certain responsibility for seeing that the debts were paid.

884. The Mexican Question. In the same way financial considerations as well as local disorders involved the United States in Mexican affairs. After the overthrow of President Diaz, in 1913, the Mexican republic fell into a revolutionary state. Three rulers rose to power and were overthrown. American lives and property were destroyed. American citizens who had investments in Mexico were in danger of losing their money, and occasional raids were made over the border into United States territory. No government seemed strong enough to maintain order and at the same time carry out the land reforms demanded by the *peons*—laborers on the great estates, who were no better than serfs under the Diaz régime.

In 1914 the United States and Mexico were on the verge of war, but it was averted through the friendly mediation of Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, the three most prosperous South American republics—the "A B C powers," as they were called. Again, in 1916, a raid by the Mexican bandit Villa into New Mexico led to armed intervention by our forces, which came to an end only when war with Germany became imminent.

The large population and vast resources of the Latin-American countries promise to make them a very important factor in the history of the future. The cultivation of friendly relations between the United States and the countries to the south is one of the chief tasks of the American government.

QUESTIONS

I. How did the Industrial Revolution open world trade? Compare steamship and railroad as factors in the spread of commerce. What change in the routes of trade was made by the Suez Canal? the Panama Canal? How does foreign commerce stimulate imperialism? What effects did the missionaries have in spreading European culture?

II. Why should the Chinese object to Europeans' entering China? When did Europeans enter it? What is a "treaty port"? Why is a "railroad concession" in a backward country likely to bring international disputes? What power in the East is most dangerously situated with regard to China? Explain why the Japanese were able to pass from feudal to modern conditions so much more rapidly than the nations of Europe. What pretexts did the powers of Europe have in seizing Chinese territory? Explain the causes and results of the Boxer uprising. How have the interests of Russia and Japan clashed? Outline the Russo-Japanese War. Why has China been a prey to the European nations? What are the difficulties that face China today?

III. When was Africa opened up to colonization? Why has it been so behind America in this respect? Mark on an outline map the possessions of the European powers prior to the World War of 1914. Sketch the history of Egypt to the middle of the nineteenth century. How did the English get control of Egypt? How have they used their control?

IV. Trace the expansion of the United States since 1867. What were the causes and results of the Spanish-American War? Review the relations of the United States with Latin America.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

PROGRESS OF MODERN KNOWLEDGE AND INVENTION

I. The Great Age of the Earth; Development of Living Things

885. Influence of Scientific Discoveries and Invention. Perhaps even more important than the various events we have been reviewing have been the scientific discoveries during the past hundred years and the changes they have wrought in the ideas and daily life of civilized mankind. Great as were the achievements of the eighteenth century, mentioned in an earlier chapter, those of the nineteenth were still more startling. In order to appreciate this we have only to recollect that the representatives of the European powers who met together at Vienna after Napoleon's fall had not only never dreamed of telegraphs, telephones, electric lights, and electric cars, which are everyday necessities to us, but they knew nothing of ocean steamships or railways, of photography, anæsthetics, or antiseptics. Such humble comforts as matches, kerosene oil, illuminating gas, and our innumerable india-rubber articles were still unheard of. Sewing machines, typewriters, and lawn mowers would have appeared to them wholly mysterious contrivances whose uses they could not have guessed.

The progress of science in the twentieth century bids fair, with our ever more refined means of research, to solve many another deep mystery and add enormously to man's power and resources. It should be the aim of every student of history to follow the development of science and to observe the ways in which it is constantly changing our habits and our views of man, his nature and possibilities. It will be possible here to do no more than suggest some of the more astonishing results of the

scientific research which has been carried on during the past hundred years with ever-increasing ardor and success, in both Europe and America.

886. Great Age of the Earth. To begin with, almost everyone in Europe believed a hundred years ago that the earth had been created along with the sun, moon, and stars, and all the animals and plants some five thousand years before. Modern geologists, on the other hand, now believe that it must have required a hundred million, perhaps even a billion, years for the so-called sedimentary rocks to be laid down in the beds of ancient seas and oceans. Many of these rocks contain fossils, which indicate that plants and animals have existed on the earth from very remote periods. Accordingly it seems possible that for at least a hundred million years the earth has had its seas and its dry land, differing little in temperature from the green globe familiar to us.

Even if we reduce this period by one half, it is impossible to form more than a faint idea of the time during which plants and the lower forms of animals have probably existed on the earth. Let us imagine that a record had been kept during the past fifty million years, in which but a single page should be devoted to the chief changes occurring during each successive five thousand years. This mighty journal would now amount to ten volumes of a thousand pages each; and scarcely more than the last page (Vol. X, p. 1000) would be assigned to the whole recorded history of the world from the earliest Egyptian and Assyrian inscriptions to the present day.

887. Lyell's Work in Geology. As early as 1795 the Scotch geologist James Hutton published his conclusion that the earth had gradually assumed its present form by slow natural processes. In 1830 Sir Charles Lyell published his famous *Principles of Geology*, in which he explained at great length the manner in which the gradual contraction of the globe and the action of rain and frost had, through countless æons and without any great general convulsions or cataclysms, formed the mountains and valleys and laid down the thick beds of limestone, clay, and

sandstone. He showed, in short, that the surface of the earth was the result of familiar causes, most of which can still be seen in operation. The work of more recent geologists has tended to bear out Lyell's views by adding much new evidence for his conclusions.

888. Darwin and his Theories. Even in the eighteenth century it began to be suspected by investigators that plants and animals had slowly developed through the ages. Charles Darwin was the first, however, to advance such careful arguments for this view that it was accepted by large numbers of people. In his famous book *The Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection*, published in 1859, he maintained that the various species of animals and plants—all the different kinds of trees and shrubs, fishes, snakes, birds, and mammals—were not descendants from original separate and individual species created in a certain form which they had always kept, but that these species as they exist in the world today were the result of many changes and modifications which have taken place during the millions of years in which plants and animals have lived upon the earth.

The theory that higher and more complicated kinds of animals and plants are derived from earlier lower and simpler ancestors is called *evolution*. This theory of development, although more disturbing to the older ideas of the world than the discovery of Copernicus that the earth revolves around the sun, made its way more rapidly. Today a large majority of zoölogists, botanists, geologists, and biologists, and, indeed, a great part of those who have received a scientific training, accept this theory.

Many recent investigators feel, however, that Darwin's attempted explanations of this development are, as he himself freely admitted, only partial and quite inadequate to account for the origin of existing living things. So the whole question still remains a great mystery, even to scientists.

II. Discoveries in the Treatment of Disease

889. The Discovery of the Cell. While it has so far been impossible to discover the way in which one species could arise from another, a vast amount has been found out about the way in which individual plants and animals grow and develop from the tiny germ or egg from which all of them have their start. About 1838 two German naturalists, Schleiden and Schwann, one of whom had been studying plants and the other animals, compared their observations and reached the conclusion that all living things were composed of minute bodies, which they named *cells*. The cells are composed of a gelatinous substance, to which the name *protoplasm* was given in 1846. All life was shown to have its beginning in this protoplasm, and the old theory that very simple organisms might be generated spontaneously was shown to be a mistake.

Many very low organisms, such as bacteria, the amœba, and other tiny creatures, consist of a single cell; and all living creatures, whether toadstools or men, spring from a germ consisting of a single cell. But in its maturity the human body is supposed to contain over twenty-six billions of cells, each of which was due to the division of a previous cell, and all of which came from a single original cell called the germ, or egg. All these cells are not alike, however, but have particular functions—those of the brain being different from those of the liver or muscles. Just as in a city one group of individuals does one thing, and another group makes another contribution to the common welfare, so in the body.

The cell theory underlies the study of biology and is shedding a flood of light upon the manner in which the original cell, or egg, from which all animals come, develops and gradually gives rise to all the tissues and organs of the body. It has helped to explain many diseases and in some cases to suggest remedies, or at least rational methods of treatment. The human body and the functions of its various organs and their relations to one another; the extraordinary activities of the blood corpuscles;

the nerves and their head and master, the brain,—all these subjects and many others have been studied in the ever-increasing number of laboratories and well-equipped hospitals which have been founded during the past century. It is clear enough, in the light of our present knowledge, that the physicians of former days relied upon drugs and other treatment which were often far worse than nothing.

890. Vaccination. In 1796 Edward Jenner first ventured to try vaccination, and thus found a means of prevention for one of the most terrible diseases of his time. With the precautions which experience has taught, his discovery would doubtless rid the world of smallpox altogether if vaccination could be everywhere enforced; but there are always great numbers of negligent persons as well as some actual opponents of vaccination who will combine to give the disease, happily much diminished in prevalence, a long lease of life.

891. Use of Anæsthetics introduced (1840–1850). Some fifty years after Jenner's first epoch-making experiment, operations began to be made on patients who had been rendered unconscious by the use of an anæsthetic; namely, ether. Chloroform soon began to be used for the same purpose. That certain drugs would reduce or destroy pain was known to the Greeks, the ancient Chinese, and even in the Middle Ages. As early as 1800 Sir Humphry Davy, a famous English chemist, advocated the use of nitrous oxide (laughing gas) in surgical operations. Faraday, another English chemist, showed, in 1818, that the vapor of ether could be used to produce anæsthesia. American surgeons began to apply these discoveries in the forties, and Dr. Long of Georgia and Dr. Morton and Dr. Warren of Boston did much to bring ether into use. In 1847 Dr. Simpson of Edinburgh began to advocate the use of chloroform. Like most discoveries, that of producing anæsthesia cannot be attributed to the insight of any single person. Before the discovery of anæsthetics few could be induced to undergo the terrible experiences of an operation; even the most unsympathetic surgeon could not bring himself to take the necessary time and care as the

patient lay under his knife. Now operations can be prolonged, if necessary, for an hour or more with no additional pain.

892. Germ Theory of Disease and Antiseptics. But even after the discovery of anæsthetics surgical operations were usually fatal, for the wound was apt to become infected. Joseph Lister, an English surgeon, hit upon the idea of keeping his instruments scrupulously clean and protecting the wound in various ways, and thus managed to reduce the number of cases that went wrong. Pasteur, a French chemist, claimed, in 1863, that a virulent kind of ulcer was due to minute organisms, which he called *bacteria*. He found that bacteria were very common in the air, and that it was they that produced infection. Koch of Berlin discovered the germ of tuberculosis, and other investigators have found the germs of pneumonia, diphtheria, lockjaw, etc.

Joseph Lister

893. The Modern War against Disease-producing Bacteria. At first sight it would seem hopeless to attempt to avoid bacteria, since they are so minute and so numerous; but experience has shown that they can be fended off in surgical cases by a scrupulous sterilization of everything that is employed in the operation. That typhoid fever is due ordinarily to impure water or milk, that tuberculosis is spread mainly through the dried sputum of those afflicted with it, that the germs of yellow fever and malaria are transmitted by the mosquito,—all suggest obvious means of precaution which will greatly reduce the chances of spreading the diseases. Moreover, remedies are being discovered in addi-

tion to these preventive measures. Pasteur found that animals could be rendered immune to hydrophobia by injections of the virus of the disease. So-called *antitoxins* (counter poisons) have been discovered for diphtheria, lockjaw, and typhoid fever, but none has yet been found for tuberculosis or pneumonia. Much remains to be discovered in regard to susceptibility to disease.

894. Influence of the Mind on the Body. In the last twenty-five years a new way of treating disease has developed, owing to the discovery that our state of mind may produce various sorts of bodily discomfort and disorder. All enlightened physicians recognize this now, and do not rely on drugs to the extent that their predecessors did. They ask us about our secret desires and disappointments, about the shocks and frights of early years which we may have thought that we had forgotten altogether. These experiences of childhood sometimes account for troubles in later life until we are helped to recall them. We may find that we are in a way pretending to be sick when we are only showing our fears and discontents in a bodily way.

Louis Pasteur

The body and the mind are evidently very closely connected. All of us notice that bad news may make us feel sick; that a word may cause what seems to us a sinking of the heart, or make it beat wildly; that anxiety will produce a headache. Consequently nowadays some doctors begin with the body and its ailments, while others begin with the mind and its distressing thoughts. Sometimes one way seems best, sometimes the other.

The study of human beings and their feelings is, however, as yet in its infancy, and a vast amount remains still to be found out. As time goes on, it is to be hoped that we shall learn to manage our emotions better as we realize more clearly their nature and causes, and their effects, not only upon ourselves but on others.

III. Discovery of the Nature of Matter

895. The Old Idea of Atoms. Away back in the time of the Greeks, there were philosophers, as we have seen (the Epicureans), who believed that everything was made of tiny particles of different kinds—hard and soft, round and jagged. These particles, they thought, were flying around and constantly forming new bodies. Some of them would go to make up iron, which would last a long time; others a vegetable, which might quickly decay. These little particles the Epicureans called *atoms*, which means things that cannot be divided. This old idea will give us a start in understanding the way in which modern scientists think about matter.

In the early part of the nineteenth century, when chemistry was developing rapidly, an Englishman by the name of Dalton found that chemical substances combined in certain definite proportions, which led him to think that all gases, liquids, and even solids were composed of small particles. These he called by the old name—atoms. It was gradually discovered that there were a good many kinds of atoms: hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, carbon, and many others.

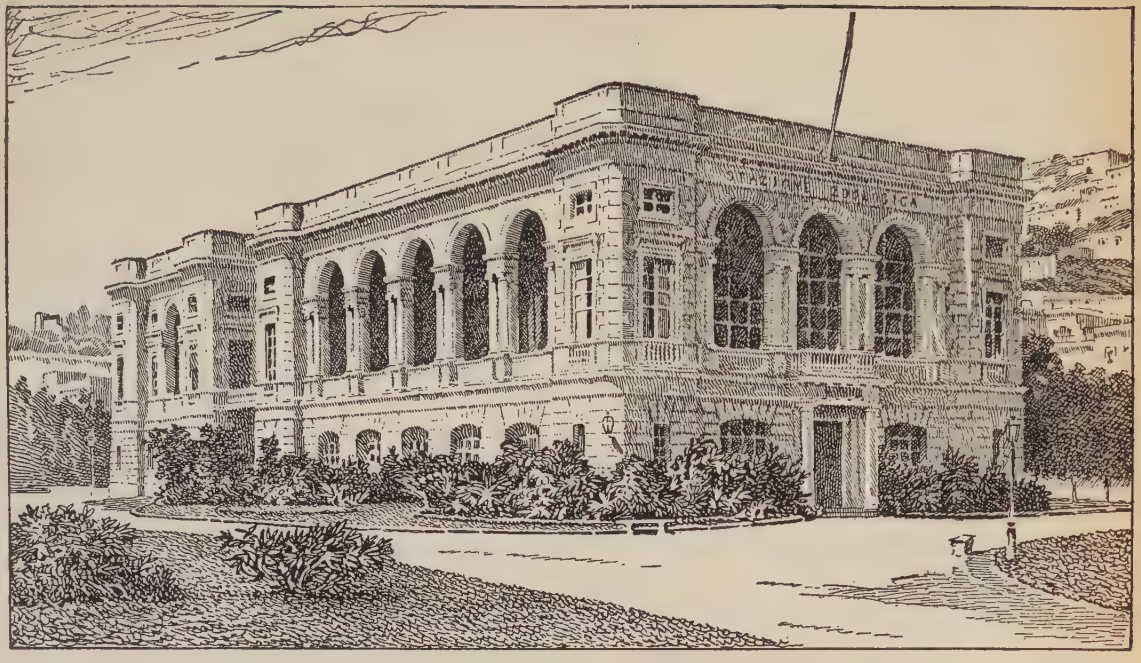
896. The Molecule. As time went on, it was discovered that the atoms combined in little bunches called *molecules* (or little masses). To take well-known examples: A molecule of water has two atoms of hydrogen and one atom of oxygen. A molecule of fizzing dioxygen which we use when we cut a finger has two atoms of hydrogen and two atoms of oxygen. Molecules of baking soda have one atom each of sodium, hydrogen, and carbon, and three of oxygen. A molecule of salt has an atom of the gas

chlorine and another of sodium. The molecules which we find in sugar or butter or gasoline are very much more complicated, and some molecules are bunches of dozens of atoms.

897. Nature of Pressure and Heat. Molecules are always moving about with incredible rapidity, particularly in gases, such as the air we breathe. Air is a mixture of oxygen and nitrogen (two oxygen atoms join into a molecule of oxygen, and two nitrogen atoms into a molecule of nitrogen). These molecules are flying about in every direction; in a room they are constantly beating against the walls, and would knock out the windows and doors if it were not for the molecules of the outside air, which are constantly pounding in the other direction. The hotter things are, the faster the molecules go. When one lights a fire under a steam boiler the molecules of water get so excited that they fly apart into water gas, which we call *steam*, and begin to beat against the inside of the boiler, which they would finally burst if the steam were not allowed to escape. A similar thing happens when the gasoline and air are exploded in an automobile cylinder. The molecules hit the head of the piston so hard that they push it down. Hence what we call the *pressure* of air or steam is just the poundings of these minute and restless molecules.

The molecules of water begin to jump apart and form steam when the water is raised to the boiling point. When the temperature is reduced to freezing, the molecules quiet down into ice. It appears that all molecules would come to rest if the temperature were reduced to what is called absolute zero; that is, about four hundred and sixty degrees below zero by our thermometer. Scientists have almost been able to reach this point. Let us now turn to the atoms of which the molecules are composed and the discovery of their strange nature.

898. Incredible Nature of the Atom. It was long supposed that various kinds of atoms were single particles and quite permanent and indestructible. It is true that there were a number of kinds,—eighty or ninety,—but it was supposed that each kind stayed the same forever. At the end of the nineteenth cen-



NAPLES BIOLOGICAL STATION

This famous institution for the study of the animal and vegetable life of the Mediterranean was established in 1874. It has been supported by various European governments, and used by hundreds of foreign biologists

tury new discoveries were made which have entirely altered this view. It was found that radium, uranium, and various other very heavy atoms tended to fly apart and shoot off portions of themselves into space. Atoms are now known to be something like our solar system. They have a *nucleus*, as it is called, which corresponds to the sun, and then revolving around it are satellites or planets, which are called *electrons*. The lightest and simplest atom is hydrogen, which has one electron. Nitrogen has seven, and radium has no less than eighty-eight, which makes it so complicated that, as we have seen, it does not hold together very well. So, while the molecules seem pretty lively, the atoms are really still more complicated and rapid in the movements of their electrons.

It is calculated that an electron of hydrogen goes around its tiny orbit seven thousand millions of times in a millionth of a second. The electrons are, in comparison with their size, a long way from the nucleus, so that an atom of hydrogen is perhaps a hundred thousand times as big as either its electron or nucleus. All atoms are then mostly emptiness, just like the solar system. While a piece of steel looks very firm and solid to us, and very quiet, it is in a state of incredible agitation in its parts. Moreover, it is mostly empty space in which the electrons are revolving about their distant centers, and the molecules, or bunches of atoms, are moving too.

There is therefore no such thing as "dead matter," for the movements of the electrons, atoms, and molecules in what seems to us a cold, inert stone are so incredibly rapid and complicated as to defy description.

IV. How the Chemists can now create Substances Old and New

899. Chemistry in Modern Life. The chemist has been able to analyze the most complex substances and discover just what atoms and molecules enter into the make-up of a plant or the body of an animal. He has succeeded in combining ("syn-

thesizing") atoms in proper proportions to reproduce artificially substances (alcohol, indigo, and perfumes, for example) which had previously been produced only by plants or in the bodies of animals. The chemist is now able to make over two hundred thousand substances, many of which do not occur in nature, and he has been able greatly to improve and facilitate the production of steel by mixing with the iron minute portions of other substances. The agricultural chemist, since he knows just what a plant needs, can, after analyzing the soil, supply those chemicals which are essential to produce a particular crop—whether corn, alfalfa, or sugar cane. He is becoming ever more necessary to the manufacturer, mine owner, and farmer, besides standing guard over the public health.

900. Coal-Tar Products. The most striking example of the magical arts of the modern chemist is the vast number of useful and beautiful things that can be made from such a seemingly hopeless substance as coal tar. But it happens that coal tar contains a great variety of very complicated and valuable molecules from which thousands and thousands of beautiful dyes (the so-called aniline colors) can be made, if one has the skill and patience. From coal tar can be manufactured also a great variety of exquisite perfumes indistinguishable from those produced from flowers, because they are made of the same atoms and molecules. Some flavoring materials also come from coal tar; it is possible to find combinations that taste exactly like wild cherry or raspberry. Our medicine closets are full of drugs and disinfectants which are derived from coal tar. When we have a tooth pulled, the pain may be avoided by the use of a coal-tar drug; and when we listen to a record on the phonograph, we may remember that the disk is a coal-tar product.

As Dr. Slosson has put it: When the daring traders of former days had returned from the Far East after untold hardships by land and sea, the rare and precious goods which he would have brought back would be found on inspection to be made up largely of what we now call coal-tar combinations. "There would be dyes and drugs, perfumes and preservatives; whatever

amorous youth would choose to enhance the beauty of his lady love, and whatever pious youth would use to embalm the body of his father; whatever would color the curtains of the palace of the king or the temple of the Deity; whatever would serve to scent the banquet hall or ascend to Heaven as incense from the altar.

"Now these that were the gifts of kings, the prerogative of royalty, the acme of luxury, all these have by the bounty of science been put within the reach of all. To be born to the purple is no longer a distinction, it is the natural heritage of any American babe. King Solomon in all his glory was not arrayed like a lady who has all the aniline dyes at her disposal. The shop girl may rival the Queen of Sheba in her employment of perfume—and she often does."

V. Effects of Gasoline and Electricity on our Lives

901. The Steam Engine and Electricity. Until the improvement of the steam engine by James Watt (§§ 667 ff.), man had either to do his work himself or get it done by horses and oxen, water wheels and windmills, and other crude devices. The steam engine enabled him to run his new machines, his locomotives and steamships. All this produced very great changes, as we know. We have still to rely on steam for a great many things, even for generating electricity; but nevertheless the discovery of the dynamo by Faraday (1828) has greatly altered our ways of producing and utilizing power. The power of a steam engine can be utilized only on the spot; whereas electricity can be conducted over wires to great distances and, with the progress of invention, is now used to run trains and machinery. It will light and even help heat our houses. It will operate sewing machines and vacuum cleaners. It will cool a refrigerator or broil a steak. There is an increasing tendency to utilize water power for producing electricity, and miles of railroads are operated by electricity thus generated. Niagara Falls generates the electrical power for great chemical plants.

902. Supplanting the Steam Engine. Inventors had long dreamed of another kind of engine which would get its power by explosion rather than by the more gentle pressure of steam. It was not until 1876, however, that Dr. Otto of Cologne devised the first practicable engine run by the explosion of a mixture of gas and air. This early gas engine was used for some time before it was discovered that the petroleum product gasoline, which had heretofore been permitted to go to waste in the oil wells, was admirably adapted for use in this type of machine. Today, as we know, millions of gallons are produced a day and are used to run automobiles, pumps, tractors, submarines, and airplanes.

903. Advantage of the Gasoline Engine. None of these strange new devices so familiar to us now would have been possible without gasoline, because the steam engine requires a heavy boiler and a vast supply of coal; whereas the gas engine can be made very compact, and the gasoline can be conducted through pipe lines and goes a great deal farther than coal. Hence by using gasoline it was possible to develop the locomotives which now fill our streets in the form of motor cars and to have something light enough to carry up into the sky to propel a craft that had no other footing than the air.

904. Some Effects of the Gas Engine. We are already so familiar with automobiles that we scarcely realize what great effects they have had in making it possible to get from place to place easily and rapidly. One may live far from town and still easily take advantage of its resources. Gradually the old farm machinery drawn by horses is giving way to tractors driven by gas engines. A certain form of these tractors, the so-called tanks, played a great part in the last war, for they were more terrible than any Macedonian phalanx or Roman legion. Great as was the rôle of the submarine in the World War, it would seem as if the air craft were likely to play a far greater part, should there be another war. All these and many other things have come from this new type of engine, and the discovery that gasoline could be used to run it.

VI. The New History

905. Great Extension of History Backward. Among the branches of human knowledge which have undergone great changes during the nineteenth century is *history* itself. It is now based on far more reliable sources than it was formerly and is more carefully written. Such a book as this could not have been produced fifty years ago, for the facts contained in the first three chapters were not then known. Half a century ago history dealt with a very short period in man's long career—mainly the last twenty-five hundred years. During the last half-century a vast amount has been learned about man and his achievements in Egypt and Mesopotamia long before the poems of Homer were written. We now know that writing was used in Egypt some four thousand years before the opening of the Christian Era. In this way the scope of history has been *doubled* and extends through five thousand years instead of twenty-five hundred.

Moreover, much has been discovered in the last fifty years about man before he had learned to write and make records of his experiences and thoughts. As we have seen, we can trace his gradual inventions and improvements by his stone tools and utensils, later by the pictures he left on the walls of caves, and still later by the vestiges of his houses found on the shores of the Swiss lakes.

906. Importance of Recent History. While our knowledge of the past now extends back far beyond what was known a hundred years ago, we have at the same time come to realize that the more recent the history, the more important it is in enabling us to form a judgment on the problems of our own day. Twenty years ago such manuals as this were apt to deal pretty fully with ancient history—Greece and Rome—and tell very little indeed about the modern world in which we live. This has now been reversed. The World War called everyone's attention to the vital importance of understanding European conditions if we were to understand the war and its consequences

and the great problems that now face mankind. It will be noticed that only a third of the present volume is devoted to the whole period from earliest man down to the opening of the seventeenth century. On the other hand, two hundred pages are assigned to the developments of the past half-century, which concerns us most nearly.

907. History alone enables us to understand the World of Today. The reason for this is that the authors believe that we can understand the present only by understanding the past. We each of us have to explain our own lives and circumstances by our own particular past; by our memories and experiences and the conditions in which we happen to have been placed. So it is with mankind in general. One has to realize man's slow struggle up from ignorance and savagery to understand the constant need for reform and the difficulty of carrying it out.

There is no reason to think that we do not still have innumerable reforms to make; for our knowledge is ever increasing and our situation constantly being changed as a result of new knowledge and new inventions, which have revolutionized the life of mankind in the past and will continue to change it in the future, and so raise ever new tasks for the reformer.

908. Growing Importance of the History of Science. It may well be that men of science, not kings or warriors or even statesmen, are to be the heroes of the future. Perhaps during the twentieth century the progress of science and its practical applications will be recognized as the most vital element in the history of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Our histories will have to be rewritten. Diderot's *Encyclopedia* will receive more space than the wars of Frederick the Great; and the names of Lyell, Darwin, Lister, Koch, and Pasteur will take their places beside those of Metternich, Cavour, and Bismarck.

For, after all, the real progress of civilization depends less upon statesmen who aspire to control the fate of nations than upon the scientist, inventor, and engineer, who give us control of nature and, to some extent, of life itself. From the laboratory comes most of the wealth and power of modern nations. The

statesmen of the future must therefore reckon with these new contributions as the statesmen of the past have had to reckon with the new sea routes which changed the fate of the Mediterranean ports, or the Industrial Revolution, which readjusted the nations of Europe and led to their expansion throughout the whole world.

909. Why History often fails to arouse Interest. The reason why so many people are not interested in history is because the older historical manuals contained so many things that could not be brought into any relation with our own lives and interests. Obviously it has been necessary in writing this volume (which gives some idea of our new knowledge of man thousands of years before the Greeks and Romans came on the scene and which at the same time attempts to give the reader a grasp of very recent occurrences) to leave out many things that were in the older textbooks. It has been the object of the authors to tell only the very important things that one must know in order to see how man has reached his present stage. They put nothing in just because it happened, but include only the matters that are absolutely essential in tracing man's general progression from the Early Stone Age to the readjustment of Europe that took place after the World War.

VII. The Age of Reading; Democratization of Knowledge

910. Greatly Increased Use of the Printing-Press. There is nothing that has contributed so greatly to making our own times different from any earlier period as the recent development of the printing-press. Books were scarce in Greek and Roman times, and during the Middle Ages very few people were able to read. We hear of a sort of newspaper in the time of Augustus, but each copy of it had to be written out by slave copyists. With the coming of paper into Europe, during the thirteenth century, and the invention of printing and the printing-press about 1455, there was a possibility of making books more cheaply. For a

long time most of them were in Latin, a few being in Greek or in the language of the people. Gradually more and more were published in the modern languages, and now almost none are printed in the ancient tongues.

911. Newspapers and Magazines. Magazines and journals began to appear in the seventeenth century; in the eighteenth century there were a few newspapers, which first became common in France during the French Revolution. Even down into the nineteenth century the great majority of people were still unable to read.

Almost all the newspapers and magazines, as we now meet them in almost all civilized countries, came into existence during the latter part of the nineteenth century and the early part of the twentieth century. In our own country the newspapers and the cheap and popular magazines, which sell by the hundreds of thousands, are largely supported by the money paid for the advertisements which they contain, and it will be noticed that the advertisements receive as much or more attention than the reading matter. This enables the publishers to sell the newspapers and magazines for far less than would otherwise be possible, for the price received from the buyer would often not even pay for the paper used. Recently it has become possible to make very beautiful illustrations which can be cheaply reproduced in colors or otherwise, and which familiarize us with the faces of distinguished writers, statesmen, inventors, and explorers.

912. Interaction of Reading and Printing. Reading and printing have gone hand in hand. Had it not been easy to get things to read, people would not have learned to read; and had they not learned to read, there could never have been such a vast amount of reading matter supplied to them. The great mass of mankind prefers the newspaper or popular magazine to books, because our periodical literature generally aims to interest just as many people as possible. Nevertheless, there are more books published every year, and many of them, especially novels and religious books, reach large numbers of readers.

913. Effect of Printing on Public Life. Through the daily newspapers it is possible to keep a whole great nation informed of what is going on and give its people an opportunity to follow current events and form their opinion about them. So printing is connected with democracy,—with the giving to everybody, both men and women, a right to vote,—for no one would have thought of granting this privilege to everyone unless reading had become practically universal.

914. How Men of Letters have come to interest themselves in Human Problems. The older writers rarely dealt with social problems in the same way that many of our novelists and dramatists now do. In the first part of the nineteenth century Carlyle and Ruskin, however, were greatly disturbed by the Industrial Revolution. They hated the smoky factory towns, and felt that all beauty would soon be crowded out of life. Carlyle wrote many fierce attacks on the factory owners and the manner in which they treated their workmen. Ruskin tried to interest as many people as possible in the art of the Italian Renaissance. Charles Dickens, unlike Walter Scott, did not deal with knights and fine ladies, but often described the lives of poor and miserable Londoners. He devoted much attention to the delays in the English courts of justice and what we may call the general unfairness of things. He was also one of the first to turn his attention to childhood, and many of his characters are children who had a very hard time in life on account of poverty and ill-treatment. Daudet in France also began to write about children, and Victor Hugo about the poor and unfortunate.

Our stories and plays, such as those of H. G. Wells and Bernard Shaw in England, Brieux in France, and Sudermann in Germany, have much to say of social problems and family problems and bad government; for instance, John Galsworthy has a famous play called *Strife*, describing a strike, and another called *Justice*, dealing with prisons and injustice.

915. Democratization of Knowledge. As knowledge has increased, a number of writers have turned their attention to mak-

ing the new discoveries plain to large numbers of readers. We now have in the United States an organized Science Service, with its headquarters at Washington, which makes a business of sending out accurate but simply expressed accounts of all important new discoveries. It is hoped that in this way the great mass of voters may come to understand the vast importance of scientific work and the necessity of supporting it, because there is always a danger that the ignorant will protest against new ideas and suspect that those who suggest them are bad men.

QUESTIONS

I. Mention some of the great inventions since the Congress of Vienna. Describe Lyell's discoveries. Why do geologists believe in the great age of the earth? Describe briefly Darwin's theories.

II. What is the cell theory in biology? What can you tell of bacteria? Describe various steps in the development of the science of medicine. Why should governments give more attention to scientific discovery and its promotion? What departments of our government are devoted to the increase of scientific knowledge? Why do physicians give more attention to the study of the mind than they formerly did?

III. How are the movements of molecules affected by gas pressure and by heat? What can you tell of the modern theory of atoms?

IV. Illustrate the importance of chemistry in our life today. Give some examples of coal-tar products.

V. Compare a steam engine with a gas engine. What advantage has the gasoline over the steam engine?

VI. How has history been extended back? What arguments can you give for special attention to recent history? Illustrate the way in which history enables us to understand the present. Give some examples of the way in which your own history explains your present situation and interests.

VII. What effects has the great increase in the number of newspapers and magazines had on our lives? How can magazines be sold for less than the cost of the paper in them? Mention some modern novelists and playwrights whose works deal with the problems of their own time.

BOOK VII. THE WORLD WAR AND EUROPE TODAY

CHAPTER XXXIX

ORIGIN OF THE WAR OF 1914

I. The Armies and Navies of Europe

916. The Incredible War of 1914. In August, 1914, the most terrible and destructive war in the history of the world broke out. Never before had millions and millions of men been ready to march against an enemy at a moment's notice; never before had any European army been supplied with such deadly weapons; never before had any war, however serious, so disturbed the affairs of the whole globe. The war came to most people as a horrible surprise. They could not believe that the European governments would dare take the fearful responsibility of entering upon a struggle which they all knew would involve untold woe and destruction. Nevertheless, war was declared, and since it is, perhaps, the most important single event in the whole history of the world, we must endeavor to see how it came about and what were the great questions involved.

917. Prussia and the Growth of Militarism. After Germany had defeated France in 1870–1871, nearly fifty years of peace had followed in *western* Europe. Meanwhile all the powers had been spending vast sums each year to train and equip soldiers. Prussia was the chief leader in military preparations. Following her defeat at Jena (§ 633) it had become clear to her statesmen that Prussia could no longer rely on an old-fashioned standing army, but must depend on the "nation in arms." Accordingly as

many able-bodied young men as possible were given a brief period of training in the army and then were assigned to the reserve forces. This made a much larger force available in case of war than any standing army of the old type. When, fifty years later, William I and Bismarck were preparing to establish Prussia's control of Germany, the annual levy of recruits was increased and the term of service was lengthened (§ 713). With an effective army thus built up of four hundred thousand troops, Prussia, in 1870, succeeded in realizing her ambition of consolidating Germany into the German Empire, with the king of Prussia at its head.

918. The Spread of the Prussian System. Not long after the war of 1870–1871 all the European powers, except England, adopted the plan of building up an army by "conscription"; that is, making all able-bodied men liable to service in the army for two or three years, after which they became members of the reserve. A large number of permanent officers had to be maintained, and a vast amount had to be spent on rifles, cannon, and other war supplies, which were being constantly improved and rendered more and more deadly.

The result of this competition in armaments was a tremendous increase in the size of the continental armies and a fearful burden of taxation, which the people had to bear. When the war broke out Germany and France had each over four millions of men in their armies, Russia had six or seven millions, and Austria-Hungary had over two and a half millions. Britain's forces, on the other hand, numbered less than two hundred thousand. The British standing army, like that of the United States, was recruited by voluntary enlistment and not built up by national conscription.

919. The British Navy. Britain, however, relied for her protection upon her unrivaled navy, which she had maintained at a strength equal to that of any two other powers. There were two reasons for this great navy. England had a much larger population than it was possible to feed from her own farms, and so had to import most of her food. Then, too, England was al-

most wholly a manufacturing country and was vitally dependent upon her commerce. If, therefore, England were to be defeated at sea, she would be utterly overcome.

920. The Naval Ambition of Germany. Germany was jealous of England's numerous colonies and extensive trade. She was eager to capture some of this commerce for herself and to protect it by a powerful fleet. Kaiser William II repeatedly declared that Germany's future lay upon the ocean. After 1897 the German navy was built up so rapidly that it became a source of fear to the other nations, and they, in order to keep pace, increased their navies. So to the crushing cost of armies European nations added the cost of navies; and the rapid progress of invention made battleships almost worthless as soon as they were a few years old.

921. The Triple Alliance and the Franco-Russian Understanding. All this warlike preparation indicated of course that the various European powers were afraid of one another. Germany feared lest France might try to avenge herself for the loss of Alsace and Lorraine. She was also afraid of Russia. As a result she concluded a defensive alliance with Austria-Hungary, which Italy joined in 1882. The terms of this Triple Alliance were kept secret, but the other powers knew of its existence. If Germany were attacked by France, the other allies were to come to her aid, although Italy did not pledge herself to help Austria if the latter were attacked by Russia.

Russia and France were afraid of being isolated and friendless if war should come, so a secret compact was arranged by them in 1893. This declared that France and Russia wished only to maintain peace and to be prepared to support each other in case one or the other of them were attacked by the forces of the Triple Alliance. Should Germany attack either power, Russia and France would mobilize forthwith and "engage with all their might, so that Germany will have to fight in both the East and the West." The German foreign office had a suspicion of this military agreement, and this suspicion had a great deal to do with the outbreak of the World War.

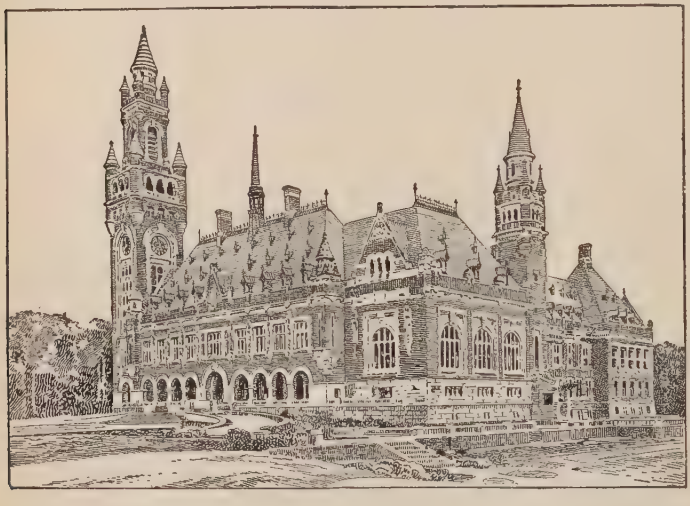
922. Secret Diplomacy. These are but two examples of secret diplomacy (of which many could be given) through which nations are bound by arrangements made by diplomats who do not reveal their pledges even to the parliament of their own country. The secrecy does not, however, prevent the secret-service departments of other nations from learning the general contents of these hidden arrangements. The World War and its revelations impressed people more deeply than ever before with the terrible danger involved in secret diplomacy.

II. Movements for Peace: the Hague Conferences

923. The Hague Conferences (1899, 1907). The enormous cost of armaments and the increasing horror of war led many earnest people to try to prevent war altogether. The first notable movement toward reducing armaments originated with the Tsar, Nicholas II. In 1898 he proposed a great conference of the powers at The Hague—the capital of Holland—to consider how the existing peace might be maintained and military expenditures reduced.

The Hague Conference did nothing to limit armaments. It is significant in view of later events that Germany strongly and successfully opposed any such action. The Conference did, however, in spite of German opposition, establish a permanent Court of Arbitration to which difficulties arising between nations "involving neither honor nor vital interests" might be submitted. But there was no way of compelling a nation to submit its grievances, and those very subjects that were most likely to lead to war were excluded from consideration. At the Second Hague Conference, held in 1907, the limitation of armaments was advocated by England, but again Germany and Austria caused a postponement of any action on the question. However, certain rules were established in regard to laying mines, the bombardment of unfortified towns, and the rights of neutrals in war, to which little or no attention was paid after the war began.

924. Arbitration Treaties between Nations. Within a decade after the First Hague Conference, however, more than one hundred and thirty treaties were made between nations, tending toward maintaining peace by arbitration. International societies and congresses were, moreover, steadily increasing in



THE PEACE PALACE AT THE HAGUE, HOLLAND

This magnificent building was given by Mr. Andrew Carnegie to establish a center for the peaceful settlement of international disputes. It is the seat of the Hague Court of Arbitration (§ 923) and also of the World Court (§ 1059)

number, and there was a general recognition that peoples of different nations had innumerable common interests which they should help one another to promote.

III. MATTERS OF DISPUTE: NATIONAL RIVALRIES

925. Rivalries in Northern Africa. We have seen how the nations of Europe began in the latter part of the nineteenth century, as rivals for the world's trade, to seize colonies and trading posts in Africa and Asia, and, moreover, how they stood eying

each other suspiciously as to which was to profit most from the decline of Turkey (Chapter XXXVI). Now we must see how these conditions—which for almost fifty years had somehow been adjusted without causing a general conflict—in the summer of 1914 precipitated the World War.

First, let us recall the exploration and partition of Africa. France took most of the Mediterranean shore, and in so doing incurred, at different times, the rivalry of Italy, England, and Germany. Its province of Algeria, conquered in 1830 and thoroughly subdued in 1870–1874, had two native states as neighbors —Tunis and Morocco. Claiming that the Tunisian tribesmen were raiding the border, France conquered Tunis in 1881 and thus forestalled Italy, which had intended taking the site of ancient Carthage for itself.

France and England fell out when England got financial control in Egypt, for this was bitterly resented by the French. When the English, under General Kitchener, had conquered the Sudan in 1898, at the cost of many lives, a French explorer, Colonel Marchand, crossed the heart of Africa from the west and planted the French tricolor at Fashoda, in the upper Sudan, before Kitchener could arrive there. When word of this reached Paris and London war seemed inevitable, and it would have come had not the French given way. The "Fashoda incident" created a very strained situation between France and England.

926. France and England in an *Entente Cordiale*. Within four years, however, the change in feeling was complete. King Edward VII, who had succeeded to the throne of England upon the death of his mother, Victoria, in 1901, was personally fond of France, and the French of him. Skillful statesmen made the most of the new situation, and in 1904 France and England came to a "cordial understanding"—or, to use the French phrase, *entente cordiale*—concerning all their outstanding sources of quarrel. This *Entente*, as it is generally called, turned out to be one of the most important facts in recent history. France was to recognize British interests in Egypt, and England those of France in Morocco, which country France had begun to

penetrate from the Algerian border. The *Entente* was hailed with great satisfaction on both sides of the English Channel.

927. England and Russia draw together. England now came to terms with her ancient rival Russia. The Tsar's armies had been gradually penetrating nearer and nearer to India, and a conflict with the British seemed likely to come at any moment. However, in 1907, the two powers settled their dispute by each carving out a "sphere of influence" in Persia where their industrial interests had conflicted. That is to say, they limited their control to a certain portion of the country and agreed not to interfere with each other. These two great powers were by no means naturally friends, for the British hated the Russian autocracy and London was a place of refuge for Russian revolutionists. The Russian government, on the other hand, disliked the English ideas of liberty.

928. Europe on the Brink of War; Morocco. One great power seemed to be excluded from this new *cordial understanding*, —Germany. The German newspapers denounced the *Entente* as hostile to their land and designed to encircle the Central Powers—Germany and Austria—as with an iron ring. In 1905, therefore, Germany, supported by Austria, objected to the agreement between England and France by which the latter was to have a free hand in Morocco. Germany claimed to have interests there, too, and the emperor spoke in such a way as to bring on a general "war scare." France agreed to a conference at Algeciras, Spain, in which the United States took an active part. This conference granted the French police power in Morocco but guaranteed the latter's independence. In 1911 Germany interfered again in Morocco; because there were a few Germans in that country she sent a cruiser to Agadir and demanded that France consult her in Moroccan matters and change her policy of policing the country. War was very narrowly averted. France gave up some of its possessions on the Congo to Germany in order to be allowed a free hand in Morocco.

The Agadir incident alarmed statesmen in England as well as those in the countries concerned. Everyone saw how near

Europe had come to the brink of war. It was claimed by those in Germany who advocated expansion in foreign countries that the Agadir incident had been a failure for the fatherland, since France was left in possession of Morocco, and they demanded stronger action in the future. In France and England, on the other hand, many were angered at the bold way Germany had apparently tried to humble them before the world and were bitter that Germany got any satisfaction at all. The result was that all nations increased their warlike preparations.

IV. The Near-Eastern Question

929. The Balkan Tangle. Although war between Germany and the *Entente* powers was avoided by a narrow margin in 1911, the fatal conflict was only being *postponed*. Conditions in the Balkan region, in which Austria-Hungary and Russia were vitally interested, were destined to lead to the final catastrophe in which the ancient dynasties of the Hapsburgs and the Romanoffs and all their ambitions and pretensions came to a tragic end.

In a former chapter we traced the gradual disruption of Turkey during the nineteenth century and the emergence of the Balkan states of Serbia, Greece, Rumania, and Bulgaria. Russia, it will be recollected, claimed to be the natural protector of the Slavic peoples of the Balkan region. When the Serbian and Bulgarian people, driven to desperation by the atrocities of the Turks, had revolted, in 1876, Russia had come to their aid and defeated the armies of the Sultan. Then Austria-Hungary and England had intervened and induced the Tsar to submit the whole Balkan matter to the Congress of Berlin (§ 830). Here it was decided by the powers that Serbia, Rumania, and little Montenegro should be free and independent of the Turkish rule and that Bulgaria should also be independent except for the payment of tribute to the Sultan. The province of Bosnia, whose people are mostly Slavs, and the small territory called Herzegovina, to the south, were taken from the Turkish government and turned over to Austria to occupy and administer.

930. Dissatisfaction with the Berlin Settlement. No one was satisfied with the compromises made at Berlin. A few years later (1885) Bulgaria quietly annexed the district south of her (Eastern Rumelia) and so considerably increased her territory. In 1897 Greece risked a war with Turkey, with the hope of increasing her realms, but was defeated. Turkey was, of course, anxious at all costs to hold on to the remnant of her once large dominion in Europe left her by the Congress of Berlin. She still held Macedonia and Albania. In 1908, thirty years after the unsatisfactory settlement at Berlin, a series of events began which in six years precipitated the World War.

931. The Turkish Revolution of 1908. During the opening years of the twentieth century there developed in Turkey a small party of reformers, known as Young Turks. In 1908 a so-called "Committee of Union and Progress" was formed, which declared that Turkey must have a constitution and that the reformers would march on Constantinople if the Sultan did not yield. The aged Sultan, Abdul Hamid, did not feel himself in a position to oppose the movement, and so even Turkey got something at last that passed for a constitution. The election of representatives to the Turkish parliament took place, and the assembly was opened by the Sultan with great pomp in December, 1908. This "bloodless revolution" attracted the attention of Europe, and everyone wondered whether the Young Turks, who were few in number and unpractical in their notions of government, would really succeed in reforming such a thoroughly corrupt government as that of Abdul Hamid.

932. Austria annexes Bosnia and Herzegovina. Bulgaria immediately seized the occasion to declare itself entirely independent of Turkey. Next, Austria proclaimed the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, the two Slavic provinces of Turkey which she had been managing since the settlement at the Congress of Berlin. She set to work to Germanize them as completely as possible and suppress all tendencies that they might have to join their Slavic relatives in Serbia. A glance at the map (Map 25) will show how important these provinces were

SOUTHEASTERN EUROPE 1914
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
RUSSIA
RUMANIA
BULGARIA
SERBIA
GREECE
TURKISH EMPIRE
ARMENIA
PERSIA
ARABIA
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
GALICIA
TRANSYLVANIA
BESSARABIA
CRIMEA
BOSNIA
HERZEGOVINA
MONTENEGRO
CROATIA
SLAVONIA
DALMATIA
ALBANIA
THESSALY
MACEDONIA
ILLYRIA
ITALY
SICILY
MALTA
CRETE
CYPRUS
RHODES
Aegean Is. held by Italy since 1912
Prague
Sadowa
Krakow
Kiev
Vienna
Pressburg
Budapest
Innsbruck
Venice
Trieste
Agram
Ravenna
Sarajevo
Belgrade
Bucharest
Plevna
Sofia
Varna
Rome
Naples
Ragusa
Cattaro
Cetinje
Durazzo
Monastir
Philippopolis
Adrianople
Constantinople
Skutari
Sea of Marmora
Gallipoli
Brusa
Salonika
Larissa
Angora
Sinope
Trebizond
Batum
Tiflis
Kars
Erzerum
Palermo
Messina
Catania
Corinth
Athens
Patras
Navarino
Sparta
Smyrna
Konia
Tarsus
Adana
Mosul
Antioch
Aleppo
Candia
Tripoli
Beirut
Damascus
Bagdad
Odessa
Akkerman
Sevastopol
Balaklava
Sea of Azov
Jassy
Lemberg
Dniester
Dnieper
Bug
Pruth
Danube
Drave
Save
Maros
Theiss
Kuban
Euphrates
Tigris
Black Sea
Aegean Sea
Mediterranean Sea
Caspian Sea
Ionian Islands
Longitude 25° East from 30° Greenwich

for Austria, since they connected her other main possessions with Dalmatia and her ports on the Adriatic.

933. War between Italy and Turkey. In September, 1911, Turkey's troubles were multiplied, for Italy declared war on her, on the ground that Italian subjects in Tripoli were not properly treated. All Europe protested against this "high-handed" action by Italy; but Italy replied that she was merely following the example set by other countries in protecting the lives and property of her citizens by annexing a country filled with constant disorders. Turkey was no match for Italy. There was not a great deal of fighting, but Italy took possession of such portions of Tripoli as she could hold with her troops and also captured the island of Rhodes. The Young Turks did not feel that they could face the unpopularity of surrendering these to Italy, but after the war had dragged on for a year they were forced, in October, 1912, by the oncoming of a new Balkan war, to give up Tripoli to Italy, reserving only a vague Turkish suzerainty.

934. The First Balkan War (1912–1913). Venizelos, the statesman who had been reorganizing Greece with the ability of a Cavour, secretly arranged an alliance with Bulgaria, Serbia, and little Montenegro for a war with Turkey, which began in October, 1912. The Turkish army proved very ineffective, and the Bulgarians were able in a few days to defeat it, surround the important fortress of Adrianople, and drive the Turkish forces back close to Constantinople. The Greeks advanced into Macedonia and Thrace, and the Montenegrin and Serbian army defeated the Turkish army sent against them and attacked Albania.

935. Austria intervenes. Austria now began to get very nervous lest the Serbians should establish themselves on the Adriatic. She forbade Serbia to hold the port of Durazzo. Had Russia been inclined to support Serbia at that moment the general European war would probably have broken out at the end of 1912 instead of two years later. Serbia, however, backed down. A truce was declared, and representatives of the Balkan

ETHNOGRAPHIC MAP OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, 1914

states and of Turkey met in London to see whether peace could be arranged. The powers advised Turkey to give up everything in Europe except Constantinople and the region immediately to the west. The Young Turks decided, however, to continue to fight, and the war was resumed in January. Everything went against them, and in May preliminaries of peace were signed in London in which Turkey turned over Macedonia and Crete to the Balkan allies.

936. The Second Balkan War (1913), over the Spoils of the First. But Serbia, Bulgaria, and Greece were all jealous of one another, and the division of the booty led immediately to Bulgaria's turning around to wage war on Greece and Serbia. There was a month of frightful war (July, 1913), and then the Bulgarians, defeated on all sides,—for the Turks recovered Adrianople and the Rumanians, fearing that their neighbor would become too powerful, invaded Bulgaria on the east,—agreed to consider peace, and delegates met in Bucharest, the capital of Rumania.

937. Treaty of Bucharest (1913). The treaties concluded at Bucharest between the Balkan kingdoms disposed of practically all Turkey's possessions in Europe. The Sultan was left with Constantinople and a small area to the west, including the important fortress of Adrianople. The great powers, particularly Austria, had insisted that Albania should be made an independent state, so as to prevent Serbia's getting a port on the Adriatic. The rest of the former Turkish possessions were divided up among Greece, Serbia, Bulgaria, and Montenegro. Greece got the important port of Salonika and the island of Crete as well as a considerable area in Macedonia. Bulgaria was extended to the Ægean Sea on the south. Serbia was nearly doubled in area, and Montenegro as well.

938. Revival of Rivalry between Austria-Hungary and Russia. The Balkan wars revived all the old bitter rivalry between Austria-Hungary and Russia and led, as we shall see, to a general European conflict unprecedented in the annals of history. The government at Vienna, which was largely controlled

by the German element, had always done all it could to keep the Slavic population in Bohemia and Moravia in a condition of political subordination. In Hungary the Magyar nobility had asserted their supremacy as against the Slovaks and Rumanians within the Hungarian boundary, on the north and east, and the Slavonians and Croats to the south. Both the Slavs to the north (Czechs and Slovaks) and those to the south (Jugo-slavs) bitterly resented the situation which deprived them of their due influence in both Austria and Hungary.

With the annexation of Bosnia, in 1908, the situation had become worse than ever. The neighboring Balkan state of Serbia was alarmed and indignant at this, since the annexed provinces were peopled with South Slavs, and the Serbians had cherished the ambition of uniting with them and the Montenegrins in a new South Slavonic state which would reach from the Danube to the Adriatic. Russia, which sympathized with Serbia, was also angered. When, however, Germany, Austria's ally, declared that it would support Austria, in arms if need be, Russia, which had not yet recovered from the war with Japan and its own revolutions, was obliged to submit to the humiliation, as she viewed it, of being unable to protect those of her own race in the Balkans.

The annexation of Bosnia to Austria was in another respect very serious for Serbia. It was now apparently shut off from the sea for all time to come, and so would have to rely for a market for its farm products upon its enemy across the Danube, Austria-Hungary. This would reduce it to the condition of a weak and somewhat dependent state—which was what Austria wanted.

939. Conflicting Interests of Austria and Serbia. As a result, however, of the Balkan wars of 1912–1913, Serbia burst its boundaries upon the south and all but reached the Adriatic through Albania. Again Austria interfered and had an independent prince set up in Albania to shut Serbia in. The Serbians felt that the natural rewards of their victories had been denied them by their powerful and jealous neighbor, and they now hated Austria as bitterly as they had Turkey.

The situation at the end of the Second Balkan War augured ill for the peace of Europe. Although Austria had managed to frustrate Serbia's hope of getting a port on the Adriatic, and had succeeded in having Albania made an independent principality under a German prince, Serbia had nearly doubled her territory, and there was every probability that she would undertake to carry out her former plan of uniting the discontented South Slavs in the neighboring provinces of Austria-Hungary —Bosnia, Croatia, and Slavonia. Germany was in hearty sympathy with the plans of Austria, while Russia was ready to support Serbia and the South Slavs, its distant kinsmen.

940. German Ambitions. Germany now expressed grave fears that Russia would dominate the Balkan regions and perhaps seize Constantinople. This would put an end to a cherished plan of Germany—a railroad from Berlin to Bagdad and the Persian Gulf, which would control a vast trade with the Orient. Germany had already arranged a "concession" from Turkey to construct this road, which was well under way when Serbia, through whose territory the trains from Germany must pass, became a danger.

941. Feverish Military Preparations in 1913. The year 1913, therefore, brought renewed activity in military "preparedness." Germany took the lead by increasing its standing army, and the Reichstag voted about a billion marks for unusual military expenses (June, 1913). France replied by increasing the term of active service in the army from two to three years. Russia made heavy appropriations, and General Joffre, the French commander in chief, was called in to make suggestions in regard to reorganizing the Russian army. German military experts were permitted to train the troops of Turkey, which finally were placed in command of a German general. Austria-Hungary strengthened herself with improved artillery; England devoted large sums to her navy; and even Belgium introduced universal military service on the ground that Germany had been constructing railroad tracks up to her borders, which could be explained only by her purpose to pass through Belgium when the fight began.

V. The Outbreak of the War

942. The Murder of the Austrian Archduke. On June 28, 1914, occurred the event which served as a pretext for war. Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, and his wife were assassinated while upon a visit to Bosnia. The Serbian government had warned the archduke not to go there, because it feared that hot-headed pro-Serbian conspirators might attempt an assassination. Austria nevertheless asserted that Serbia had favored such conspiracies and was therefore *responsible* for the assassination. It allowed nearly a month to pass, however, before making formal protest.

943. The Austrian Ultimatum (July 23, 1914). On July 23 Austria sent Serbia not a protest, but an ultimatum. It gave Serbia forty-eight hours in which to agree to suppress anti-Austrian propaganda in newspapers and schools, or by societies; to dismiss from the army or government positions anyone offensive to Austria; and to allow *Austrian* officials to sit in Serbian courts in order to bring the guilty to justice. Serbia agreed to all these humiliating conditions except the last, and offered to refer even that to the Hague Tribunal. This Austria refused to do; she was bent on reducing Serbia's power, which she believed to be a deadly menace to the very existence of Austria-Hungary. The decision to invade Serbia was loudly cheered by the Vienna crowds.

944. The Position of Germany. The last week of July, 1914, was perhaps the most momentous in the world's history. The kaiser and his advisers wanted Serbia punished and weakened and they gave Austria a sort of "blank check" to go ahead and deal with her neighbor as harshly as she wished. There was great danger, however, that Russia would not stand by and see Serbia subdued by Austria. This danger was apparent to the British foreign minister Lord Grey, who, with the coöperation of the other chief powers, made an effort to induce Germany to warn instead of encouraging Austria. The German foreign office, however, was reluctant to interfere with Austria's re-

venge. The German chancellor did finally expostulate with the Vienna government, but it was too late. Germany's *military* leaders seem to have felt that they were ready for war, no matter on how large a scale; and they well knew that Russia had not finished her preparations, nor France either.

945. Germany violates Belgian Neutrality. As soon as Austria declared war on Serbia, July 28, Russia began rapidly to mobilize, and Germany, claiming this to be an attack on her, declared war on Russia, August 1. On the same day she demanded of France, Russia's ally, what she proposed to do. The French government replied that France would take such action as her interests might require; whereupon Germany declared war on France, August 3. But Germany was in such a hurry to strike first that her troops were marching on France a day before war was declared. On August 2 they occupied the neutral country of Luxemburg, in spite of the protests of its ruler. Germany issued an ultimatum to Belgium, giving her twelve hours, from 7 P.M. to 7 A.M., to decide whether she would permit the German troops to cross the little kingdom on their way to France. If she consented, Germany promised to respect her territory and people; if she refused, Germany would treat her as an enemy. Now others as well as the Belgians could see why

LITTLE BELGIUM BOLDLY REFUSES TO LET BIG GERMANY PASS

A cartoon from *Punch*, used by permission

Germany had constructed such an abundance of railroad sidings close to the Belgian boundary. The Belgian government replied to the German demand with great firmness and dignity, urging that her neutrality had been guaranteed by the powers, including Prussia, and stating that she would resist any attempt to violate it.

946. Great Britain enters the War. It was almost inevitable that Great Britain, as an ally of France, should be drawn into the conflict. British statesmen had made repeated and strenuous efforts to bring about a conference of the powers for the purpose of effecting a peaceful settlement of the issues between Austria and Serbia. Germany, however, continued to refuse to interfere with Austria's proposed measures for revenging herself on Serbia. On August 1, the German ambassador in London asked whether England would remain neutral if Germany promised not to violate Belgian territory and urged the British to guarantee that France would also remain neutral. Great Britain not only rejected this suggestion, but on August 2 the British cabinet informed France that the British fleet would give her all protection possible if a hostile German fleet came into the Channel or North Sea.

Two days later, learning that German troops were making their way into Belgium, Sir Edward Grey sent an ultimatum to Germany demanding within twelve hours assurances that she would respect Belgian neutrality. The German chancellor replied that military necessity required that the German armies cross Belgium. He told the English ambassador in Berlin that England ought not to enter the war just for the sake of "a scrap of paper." This contemptuous reference to the solemn treaties by which the European powers had guaranteed the neutrality of Belgium roused the anger of the entire outside world. It was the invasion of Belgium which arrayed the English people solidly behind the government when, on August 4, 1914, it declared war on Germany.

947. Europe a Powder Magazine. We have already learned enough of the wars, rivalries, suspicions, secret arrangements,

and military preparation of the various European powers to see that, as an English historian puts it, "The Old World had degenerated into a powder magazine, in which the dropping of a lighted match, whether by accident or design, was almost certain to produce a conflagration." It is a mistake to imagine that the conflict took the diplomats and military commanders by surprise because, as we have seen, they had been getting ready for war for years. Bismarck had said a world war was sure to come and that it would begin in eastern Europe. Each country thought it was in the right and was taking measures for its own protection and honor. Germany and Austria were in great fear of the Slavic peril—that is, of Russia and her support of the outlying Slavic peoples, especially the Serbians. Germany was afraid of France and France of Germany. The British could not bear the prospect of a German fleet in the North Sea attacking France nor of a German occupation of Belgium.[1]

948. The Powers at War in 1914. Japan speedily declared war on Germany, and early in November Turkey decided to join the Central Powers. Within three months Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey were pitted against Serbia, Russia, France, Belgium, England, Montenegro, and Japan. Italy declared herself neutral and not bound to help Austria and Germany, since in the Triple Alliance of 1882 she had pledged her aid only in case they were attacked; she claimed that they were now the aggressors and that she was consequently free to keep out of the struggle.

When the great powers of Europe found themselves involved in a general war, the issue between Austria and Serbia sank into

[1] The conclusion of Mr. Lloyd George at the end of 1920 may be quoted: "The more one reads memoirs and books written in the various countries of what happened before the first of August, 1914, the more one realizes that no one at the head of affairs quite meant war at that stage. It was something into which they glided, or rather staggered and stumbled, perhaps through folly, and a discussion, I have no doubt, would have averted it." No one could really foresee how very terrible and extensive and prolonged the war would be nor how permanently disastrous would be its outcome. It was the result of very evil international relations inherited from a long past which those in charge of foreign and military affairs had done little or nothing to change.

the background. The popular conviction among the allies was that Germany—even the kaiser personally—was responsible for the war. The Germans, on the other hand, were convinced that they were defending the fatherland against a great conspiracy to crush German civilization. They were threatened by a Slavic invasion from the East which they had long feared; France, they believed, was planning to avenge the humiliation of 1870; England's hostility they ascribed to her bitter resentment over Germany's growing prosperity and commercial power. Indeed, it was on England chiefly that the Germans centered their hatred, accusing her of being responsible for the war.

QUESTIONS

I. Describe the growth of Prussian militarism. How did the Prussian system affect the other European powers? What is conscription? Explain the naval rivalry between England and Germany.

II. What were the objects and results of the Hague conferences?

III. How did the partition of Africa breed international rivalries? What change did Edward VII make in the foreign affairs of England? What countries were friendly to England in 1914? Trace the history of the Morocco affair.

IV. What interests had Russia and Austria in the Balkans? How did the Balkan wars of 1912–1913 affect Germany, France, and Russia? Give a short account of the Turkish revolution of 1908. In what way did Austria take advantage of the situation in Turkey in 1908? What reason did Italy give for making war on Turkey? What was the outcome of the war? Outline the history of the Balkan wars. What difficulties did Austria's annexation of Bosnia raise?

V. Trace the events in the summer of 1914 which led to the World War. What was meant by the "neutrality" of Belgium? Contrast the German and the English view of the responsibility for the outbreak of war. What are your views on the matter?

CHAPTER XL

FIRST YEARS OF THE WORLD WAR (1914–1916)

I. Course of the War in 1914 and 1915

949. The German Drive on Paris checked at the Marne. The vast German army advanced on France in three divisions, one through Belgium, one through Luxemburg (also a neutral state) down into Champagne, and the third from Metz toward Nancy. The Belgians offered a determined resistance to the advance of the northern division and hindered it for ten days—a delay of vital importance to the French. But the heavy German guns proved too much for the forts around Liége, which were soon battered to pieces, and Brussels was occupied by the enemy, August 20. The French, reënforced by English troops hastily dispatched across the Channel, made their first stand around Namur. This famous fortress, however, immediately collapsed under the fire of the German siege guns, and the French and English rapidly retreated southward. The western division of the German army had come within twenty-five miles of Paris by September 1. The headquarters of the French government were moved to Bordeaux, and the capital prepared for a siege.

The victory of the French, however, in the famous battle of the Marne, under the leadership of General Joffre, put an end to the immediate danger of the Germans' occupying Paris. They were compelled to retreat a little way and took up a position on a line of hills running from Soissons to Reims. Here they were able to intrench themselves before the French and English could drive them farther back.

950. Conquest and Ill-treatment of Belgium. After the Germans had given up their first hope of surprising Paris they proceeded to overrun Belgium. They captured Antwerp, October 10,

THE BRITISH FLEET ASSEMBLED FOR REVIEW, JULY, 1914

War being imminent, the fleet was ordered not to disperse and was all ready to blockade Germany

and conquered the whole country, except a tiny corner southwest of Ostend. It was their hope to push on to Calais and occupy this port nearest to England as a base of attack against the British Isles, but they were checked at the Yser River. They treated the Belgians as a conquered people, exacted huge tributes, partially burned the city of Louvain, brutally executed many civilians, and seized any machinery or supplies they desired. This treatment of a peaceful little neighbor, whose safety from invasion they themselves had solemnly guaranteed, did more to rouse the anger of the rest of the world than any other act of the German government.

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KING ALBERT

951. The German Occupation of Northeastern France. Thus the first three months of the war saw the Germans in practically complete possession of Belgium and Luxemburg, together with a broad strip of northeastern France, filled with prosperous manufacturing towns, farms and vineyards, and invaluable coal and iron mines. The Germans were ordered to do all they could to destroy the machinery in the factories, cut down the fruit trees, and wreck the mines, so as to disable and impoverish France in every way possible.

952. Permanence of the Battle Line in France. The lines established after the battle of the Marne and the check on the Yser did not change greatly in four years, in spite of the constant fighting and the sacrifice of hundreds of thousands of men on both sides. The Germans were not able to push very much farther into France, and the Allied forces were almost equally

unsuccessful in their repeated attempts, at terrible sacrifice of life, to force the Germans more than a few miles back. Both sides "dug themselves in," and trench warfare went on almost

THE MUNITION WORKS, LE CREUSOT, FRANCE

France has relied much upon its artillery for defense. The Creusot works are next to the German Krupp works in importance

incessantly, with the aid of machine guns, shells, and huge cannon. Airplanes flew hither and thither, observing the enemy's positions and operations and dropping bombs in his

midst. Poisonous gases and liquid fire, introduced by Germany, added their horrors to the situation.

953. The War on the East Front (1914–1915). On the Eastern Front the Russians at first advanced far more rapidly than had been expected. They succeeded in invading East Prussia, but were soon driven out by the German general Hindenburg and his army. They made their main attack on the Austrians in Galicia, but were forced to withdraw, owing to the operations of the German and Austrian armies in Poland. During the winter of 1915 the Russians made fierce attempts to pass the Carpathians and invade Austria-Hungary. They failed, however, on account of lack of supplies, and hundreds of thousands of lives were sacrificed in vain. In August, 1915, Russia was forced to surrender Warsaw and other large Polish towns to the Germans, who pushed on beyond Poland and occupied Courland, Livonia, and Esthonia. They therefore were able to take possession of and hold for the time being very important Russian territories in addition to their control of Poland.

954. Turkey joins the Central Powers, November, 1914. In November, 1914, the Teutonic allies were reënforced by Turkey. The Sultan issued a call to all faithful Mohammedans to wage a holy war on the enemies of Islam. But, contrary to the hopes of Germany, there was no general rising of the Mohammedans in India and Egypt against the British rule. England seized the opportunity to declare Egypt altogether independent of Turkey, December, 1914, and established a new ruler, who was given the title of Sultan of Egypt and accepted an English protectorate over his country. The English also invaded Mesopotamia, and finally captured the famous old city of Bagdad, in March, 1917. They likewise forced back the Turkish army in Palestine and succeeded in capturing the holy city of Jerusalem, in December, 1917.

An attempt of the English and French in 1915 to take Constantinople proved, however, a terrible failure. In April of that year their forces, greatly strengthened by contingents from Australia and New Zealand, who had come to the Mediterranean

THE WESTERN FRONT, 1914–1917

Germany, Austria-Hungary, and their Allies
Countries at War with Teutonic Allies

THE EASTERN FRONT, 1914–1917

by way of the Red Sea, tried to force their way up the Dardanelles. The Turks, well supplied with German commanders and equipment (§ 941), defended themselves with such success that the Allies, in spite of the sacrifice of a hundred thousand men, killed and wounded, were unable to hold their positions on the peninsula of Gallipoli, where they had secured a footing. After some months the English government was obliged to recognize that it had made a tragic mistake, and the attempt was given up.

955. Italy joins the Allies. In May, 1915, Italy finally decided that she could no longer remain out of the war. Her people believed in the principles for which the Allies claimed to be fighting and had no love for Austria. Then, too, it seemed that the opportunity had come to win "Italia Irredenta,"—those portions of the Italian people still unredeemed from Austrian rule who live around Trent, in Istria and the great seaport of Trieste, and along the Dalmatian coast. So this added another "front" which the Central Powers had to defend.

956. The Belligerents at the Opening of the Second Year of the War. The line-up at the opening of the second year of the war consisted of the Central Powers—Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey, opposed to Russia, France, Italy, Great Britain (including Canadian, Australian, New Zealand, South African, and East Indian troops, all ready to shed their blood for the safety of the British Empire), Belgium, Serbia, Japan, and the tiny countries of Montenegro and San Marino,—twelve belligerents in all, scattered over the whole globe. But the war was not destined to stop at this point. Hundreds of millions of people who were at that time still neutral later became involved in the conflict against Germany and her allies.

II. The War On the Sea

957. Extinction of German Commerce. It was the war on the sea that raised the chief problems for the world at large. At the beginning of the war many people supposed that there would soon be a great and perhaps decisive naval engagement between

the German and British fleets, but no such thing happened.[1] The Germans kept their dreadnaughts safe in their harbors, protected by cruisers and mines. The German merchant ships took shelter at home or in neutral ports. So German commerce was soon cut off altogether, and England ruled the ocean. Had it not been for the recently discovered and rapidly improved submarines, or U-boats, as they were popularly called, the Germans would have been helpless against the British control of the seas. It was this new kind of warfare that largely determined the course of the conflict of the nations.

958. The Blockade and the Submarine. It was easy for England to block the German ports of Hamburg and Bremen, the outlet from the Kiel Canal, and the outlet from the Baltic without violating the established principles of international law. But the German submarines could still steal out and sink English merchant ships and manage now and then to torpedo a great war vessel. Great Britain claimed the right under these new conditions of naval warfare to force all neutral ships bound for the neutral ports of Holland, Norway, and Sweden to stop and be inspected at Kirkwall, in the Orkney Islands, to see if they were carrying contraband of war—namely, munitions and materials to be used directly or indirectly for military ends—and to make sure that their cargoes were not really destined for Germany. The British soon declared that all shipments of foodstuffs to Germany would be deemed absolute contraband of war, since feeding her fighting men was as necessary for her continuing the war as supplying them with munitions.

959. The Germans extend the Zone of Marine War. This was described by the Germans as an obvious attempt "through starvation to doom an entire nation to destruction." The German government thereupon declared that the waters around England should be regarded as within the zone of war, that

[1] On May 31, 1916, a portion of the German fleet ventured out of the Baltic and fell in with a strong detachment of the British fleet. After a few hours the mist, smoke, and darkness put an end to the fight, and no decision was reached.

within this zone all enemy merchant vessels would be sunk, whether it were possible to save the passengers and crews or not. Neutrals were warned that they would be in great danger if they entered the zone. In former days it was possible for a man-of-war to hold up a vessel, and if the cargo was found to be contraband, to capture or sink the vessel after taking off the people on board. But the submarine had no room for extra persons, and the Germans found it much more convenient to torpedo vessels without even the warning necessary to enable the passengers and crew to take to the lifeboats.

960. The Sinking of the *Lusitania*. In February, 1915, German submarines began to sink not only enemy vessels but neutral ones as well, sometimes giving the people on board warning, but often not. The most terrible example of the ruthlessness of the U-boats was the sinking, without warning, of the British liner *Lusitania*, May 7, 1915, involving the loss of nearly 1200 men, women, and children, including over a hundred American citizens. The Germans claimed that the vessel was armed and laden with shells, and that the Americans had no business to be on it, since a notice in the New York papers had warned them against traveling on the fated boat. But after careful investigation an American court decided that the vessel was not armed and did not carry any explosives. This act aroused horror and indignation not only in Great Britain and the United States but throughout the rest of the world.

961. The British Drive (1915). On the Western Front the English forces had steadily increased, until, by the end of September, 1915, Sir John French had a million men under his command. The English had also been very busy producing arms and munitions, in which they had been sadly deficient at the opening of the war, and they had greatly added to their supplies by purchases in the United States. They therefore resolved upon a drive northeast of Arras. After a period of terrific fighting they succeeded in forcing back the German lines two or three miles on a front of fifteen or twenty miles. This gave the world some notion of the difficulty the Allies

would have to meet in their attempt to oust the German armies from France and Belgium.

962. Serbia overwhelmed; Entrance of Bulgaria into the War. In spite of the English drive, the Germans, who had succeeded in forcing back the Russians in Galicia, now undertook the invasion of Serbia. This encouraged Serbia's bitter enemy, Bulgaria, to declare in favor of the Central Powers and join vigorously in the cruel punishment of her neighbor. In spite of stout resistance on the part of the Serbians, their country, attacked on two sides, quickly fell into the hands of their enemies.

The British and French had landed troops at the Greek port of Salonika but were unable to prevent the disaster. There was a grave difference of opinion in Greece as to the proper attitude for the government to take. The royal family was regarded as pro-German, but many, including Greece's chief statesman, Venizelos, favored siding with the Allies. King Constantine managed to maintain the nominal neutrality of his country until the year 1917, when his policies led to his expulsion from Greece.

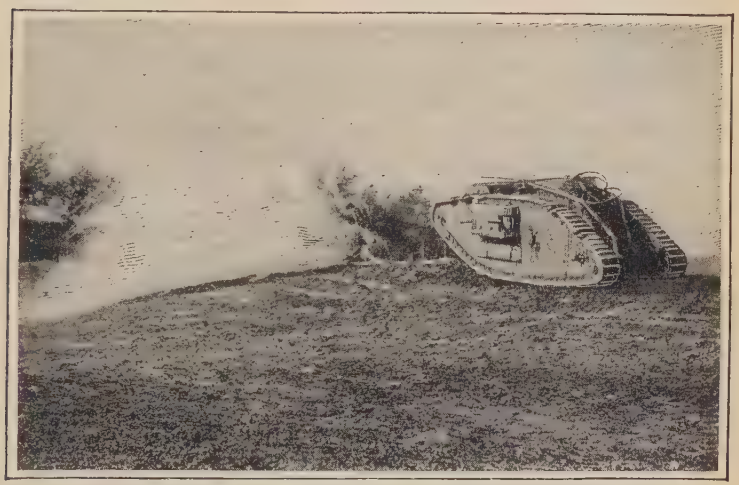
III. The Campaigns of 1916

963. The Germans attack Verdun. After the slight success of the British drive the Germans got together a great army under the Prussian crown prince and attempted to take the famous fortress of Verdun. The friends of the Allies held their breath, as it seemed as if the enemy were going to crush the French and advance once more on Paris. But after months of terrible fighting, February to July, 1916, General Joffre was able to push the Germans back and put an end to the threatened danger.

At the opening of the war Great Britain had an available force of less than a hundred thousand men, for it had been accustomed to look to its navy, not its land forces, for defence. Germany, Russia, France had their millions of trained men, owing to their long-established system of universal military service,—conscription, as it is called,—which makes every able-bodied man liable to service. For a time England tried to

increase its army by voluntary enlistments, and on the whole succeeded very well. But after much discussion and opposition she introduced (May, 1916) a system of universal compulsory military service, which included all able-bodied men between the ages of eighteen and forty-one (later, fifty).

964. The Great Battle of the Somme. Shortly after, the long-talked-of Anglo-French drive, as it was called, began. The battle of the Somme was fought for four months, from July to



A Tank

November, 1916, east and northeast of Amiens. Here a new English military invention made its first appearance, the so-called "tanks,"—huge heavily armored motor cars, so built as to break through barbed-wire entanglements and crawl over great holes and trenches. The Germans retreated a few miles, but the cost was terrible, since each side lost six or seven hundred thousand men, killed or wounded.

965. The Struggle on the Italian Front. While the battle of Verdun was raging, the Italians, who had made but little progress against the strong Austrian fortifications, were suddenly pushed back by a great Austrian drive in May, 1916. By the

middle of June they had not only lost the little they had gained but had been forced to evacuate some of their own territory. At this point the Russians, in spite of the loss of Poland (§ 953), attacked Austria once more and again threatened to press into Hungary. So Austria had to give way in Italy in order to defend her Galician boundary, and the Italians were able not only to regain what they had lost but to advance somewhat on their way (as they hoped) to Trieste.

966. Rumania overrun. The brief success of the Russians encouraged Rumania to join in the war on the side of the Allies, who seemed to be getting the better of the Central Powers. She invaded Transylvania, which she had long claimed as her rightful possession. The Germans, notwithstanding the pressure on the Somme, immediately sent two of their best generals and with the help of the Bulgarians attacked Rumania from the west and south and captured Bucharest, the capital, in December, 1916. About two thirds of Rumania was soon in possession of her enemies, and the Germans could supplement their supplies from her rich fields of grain and abundant oil wells.

967. Aërial Warfare. For the first time in the history of war men were able to fly high above the contending forces, making observations and engaging in aërial battles. Airplanes, bringing new horrors in their train, are now among the essentials of war. The Germans made repeated air raids on England. They first used the huge dirigible balloons called Zeppelins, but these were later replaced by airplanes of various kinds. They killed two or three thousand English civilians—men, women, and children—in town and country and destroyed some property. Without accomplishing any important military aims, the Germans set an example which was quickly adopted by their enemies and turned against themselves. British and French airmen dropped bombs on the more accessible German towns in the Rhine valley—Freiburg, Karlsruhe, and Mannheim—and on many military supply stations.

QUESTIONS

I. What led Germany to attack Belgium? Trace the advance of the German armies into France. Describe Germany's treatment of Belgium during her occupation of the country. Give some account of the course of the fighting on the Eastern Front. What was the policy of the *Entente* in regard to Turkey?

II. What policy did England and Germany adopt in marine warfare? What effect did this have on the commerce of neutrals? Compare the situation with that during the Napoleonic wars. What was the policy of the Balkan states?

III. Why did the Germans undertake the drive at Verdun, and what was the outcome? Describe the battle of the Somme. What do you know of the conditions of trench warfare? What importance had aircraft in the war?

CHAPTER XLI

FINAL STAGES OF THE WAR: THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

I. Entrance of the United States into the War

968. Opinion in the United States. Early in the year 1917 Germany's submarine policy and reckless sinking of neutral ships finally involved her in war with a new antagonist, the great and powerful republic across the Atlantic. The government of the United States had been very patient and long-suffering. When the war broke out President Wilson declared that the government would observe strict neutrality, and he urged American citizens to avoid taking sides in a conflict that did not directly concern them. But it was impossible to remain indifferent when such tremendous events were being reported day by day. The German newspapers in the United States eagerly defended the Central Powers and laid the responsibility for the war at England's door. On the other hand, the great body of the American people were deeply shocked by the invasion of Belgium, by the burning of Louvain, and by the needless destruction of Reims Cathedral by German guns. They disliked the arrogant talk of the kaiser, and they felt a quick sympathy for France, who had lent such essential aid in the American Revolution. Those of British ancestry naturally found themselves drawn to the side of Great Britain in the great struggle, while those of German descent sympathized with the fatherland.

So the bitter feelings engendered by war began to show themselves immediately in the United States. German agents were everywhere active, doing all they could to prejudice the people of the United States against Germany's foes.

969. American Protests against Submarine Methods. As time went on President Wilson dispatched note after note to Ger-

many expostulating against the merciless and indiscriminate manner in which the submarines sent to the bottom not only British ships carrying American passengers, like the *Lusitania*, but American ships and those of other neutral nations. There was often no warning until the torpedo actually struck the ship, and not sufficient time even to take to the lifeboats and face the hazards of a troubled sea. The anger of the American people as a whole against Germany became hotter and hotter, and President Wilson began to be denounced for tolerating any diplomatic relations with the German imperial government, even though the Germans promised to reform their submarine policy in September, 1916.

970. President Wilson's Efforts for Peace. In December, 1916, after the Central Powers had occupied Poland, Serbia, and Rumania, and Germany seemed to be victorious on all hands, she made proposals for peace. She suggested that the belligerents send representatives to some point in a neutral country to consider the terms of settlement. President Wilson seized this occasion to try to get both sides to state their aims and the terms on which they would bring the war to a close. The Allies refused to negotiate with Germany at the height of her military successes, and the Germans declared that this threw the responsibility for the continuance of the war on the Allies. The war continued, and the United States was speedily drawn into the awful conflict.

971. Renewed Submarine Activity (February, 1917). At the very moment when the German government was exhibiting an apparent interest in President Wilson's efforts to bring about peace, the German military leaders were planning a new and still more ruthless use of their submarines than they had hitherto made.

In January, 1917, Great Britain, in order completely to cut off supplies from Germany, extended the area which she declared to be in a state of blockade. Germany then proclaimed to the world that in order to make head against "British tyranny" and England's alleged plan to starve Germany, she proposed to

establish a vast barred zone extending far to the west of Great Britain, in which sea traffic with England would be prevented by every available means. In this way she believed that England, who receives much of her food from distant regions,

German War Zone of February 1, 1917

Late in the year 1917 and early in 1918 the German government extended the barred zone so as to include the islands off the coast of Africa,—Madeira, the Cape Verde Islands, and the Azores,—in order to cut the routes between Europe and South America

would soon be reduced to starvation and the war brought to a speedy end. One of the most irritating features of Germany's plan was that a narrow lane was to be left through which the United States was to be permitted to send one ship a week,

provided it was painted with bright stripes of color and carried no contraband. By these measures Germany reserved a vast area of the high seas for her military enterprises, utterly regardless of every recognized right of neutral nations.

972. The United States enters War with Germany, April 6, 1917. On February 1, 1917, the Germans opened their unrestricted submarine warfare in this great barred zone, and many vessels were sunk. President Wilson broke off diplomatic relations with the German government February 3. The sinkings went on, and popular opinion was more and more aroused against Germany.

It was finally apparent that war was inevitable. President Wilson summoned a special session of Congress and on April 2, 1917, read a memorable address to its members in which he said that Germany had to all intents and purposes declared war on the United States. "Our object," he maintained, "is to vindicate the principles of peace and justice in the life of the world, as against selfish and autocratic power." The free and self-governed peoples of the world must combine, he urged, "to make the world safe for democracy," for otherwise no permanent peace is possible. He proposed that the United States should fight side by side with Germany's enemies and aid them with liberal loans.

Both Houses of Congress approved by large majorities the proposed resolution that the United States had been forced into war. Provisions were made for borrowing vast sums; old forms of taxation were greatly increased and many new ones added. In May, 1917, conscription was introduced, and all able-bodied men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty-one were declared liable to military service. Preparations were made for training great bodies of troops to be sent across the Atlantic to aid the cause of the Allies, and measures were taken for building ships to replace those destroyed by German submarines. The people of the United States showed themselves eager to do their part in what they were convinced was an unselfish war against autocracy and militarism.

973. Increase of Belligerents. One result of the entrance of the United States into the war was a great increase in the number of Germany's enemies during the year 1917. Cuba and Panama immediately followed the example set by the great North American republic; Greece, after much internal turmoil and dissension, finally, under the influence of Venizelos, joined the Allies; in the latter half of the year Siam, Liberia, China, and Brazil proclaimed war on Germany. The war had become

What the American Troops faced in France

literally a world conflict. The governments of nearly a billion and a half of the earth's population were involved in the amazing struggle. Thirteen hundred and forty millions of people were committed by their rulers to the side of the Allies, and the countries included in the Central European alliance had a total population of about one hundred and sixty millions. So nearly seven eighths of the population of the globe were nominally at war, and of these nine tenths were arrayed against one tenth, led by Prussia. Of course the vast population of India and China, which served to make these figures so overwhelming,

took little or no part in the active prosecution of the war. And after the Russian revolution, by the end of 1917, had destroyed the old government, that country, with its millions of inhabitants, could no longer be reckoned an active factor.

974. The Neutral Nations. As for the countries which remained neutral, they included a population of perhaps one hundred and ninety millions. Holland, Switzerland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden were far too close to Germany to risk breaking with her even if their peoples had been hostile to the Central Powers. Spain and a number of Latin-American states, including Mexico and Chile, held aloof. But no country could escape the burdens and afflictions of a war of such magnitude. Real neutrality was almost impossible. Everywhere taxes and prices rose, supplies were cut off, and business was greatly dislocated.

II. The Russian Revolution; the Bolsheviki

975. The Russian Revolution (March, 1917). In March, 1917, one of the chief countries among the Allies, Russia, underwent such a great internal change that she withdrew from the war, and added a new problem when it came to making peace. We must now consider the astonishing revolution which led to the overthrow of the Tsar and the old Russian autocracy.

The world conflict had hardly opened in 1914 before it revealed the corruption, the weakness, the inefficiency,—indeed, in some cases, the treason,—of the Tsar's court and his imperial officials. The millions of Russians who perished in the trenches of the Eastern Front in vain endeavors to advance into Germany and Austria-Hungary or to stem the tide of German invasion were ill supported by their government. The Duma became unmanageable, and in December, 1916, it passed a resolution declaring that "dark forces" were paralyzing the government and betraying the nation's interests. The Tsar then proceeded to dismiss the liberals from the government and replace them by the most unpopular and tyrannical officials he could find. He

THE WORLD LINE-UP AT THE OPENING OF 1918

The Allies and their Colonies and Dependencies

Country	Date of Entrance	Population	Men under Arms[1]
	1914		
Serbia	July 28	4,550,000	300,000
Russia	August 1	175,000,000	9,000,000[2]
France	August 3	87,500,000	6,000,000
Belgium	August 4	22,500,000	300,000
British Empire	August 4	440,000,000	5,000,000
Montenegro	August 7	516,000	40,000
Japan	August 23	74,000,000	1,400,000
	1915		
Italy	May 23	37,000,000	3,000,000
San Marino	June 2	12,000	1,000
	1916		
Portugal	March 10	15,000,000	200,000
Rumania	August 27	7,500,000	320,000
	1917		
United States	April 6	113,000,000	1,000,000(?)
Cuba	April 8	2,500,000	11,000
Panama	April 9	427,000	
Greece	July 16	5,000,000	300,000
Siam	July 22	8,150,000	36,000
Liberia	August 7	1,800,000	400
China	August 14	320,000,000	540,000
Brazil	October 26	25,000,000	25,000
		1,339,455,000	27,473,400

Central Powers, with Colonies and Dependencies

Country	Date of Entrance	Population	Men under Arms
	1914		
Austria-Hungary	July 28	50,000,000	3,000,000
Germany	August 1	80,600,000	7,000,000
Turkey	November 3	21,000,000	300,000
	1915		
Bulgaria	October 4	5,000,000	300,000
		156,600,000	10,600,000

[1] The population is only approximate and in round numbers. The strength of the armies given is based on an estimate of the United States War Department, October, 1917.

[2] The Russian armies at the end of 1917 were in a state of complete dissolution.

seemed to be declaring war on every liberal movement and reverting to the methods of Nicholas I (§§ 811 f.). There was a distressing scarcity of food in the cities and a growing repugnance to the continuance of the war.

976. The Tsar overthrown. Bread riots broke out in Petrograd in March, 1917; but the troops refused to fire on the people, and the Tsar's government found itself helpless. When ordered to adjourn, the Duma defied the Tsar and called for the establishment of a provisional government. The Tsar, hastening back to Petrograd from the front, was stopped by representatives of the new provisional government on March 15, 1917, and compelled to sign his own and his son's abdication in favor of his brother, Grand Duke Michael. But Michael refused the honor unless it were authorized by a constitutional assembly; this amounted to an abdication of the Romanoffs, who had ruled Russia for more than three centuries (§§ 435 ff.). There was no longer any such thing in the world as "the autocrat of all the Russias." The Tsar's relatives renounced their rights, his high officials were imprisoned in the very fortress of Peter and Paul where they had sent so many revolutionists, and political prisoners in Russia and Siberia received the joyous tidings that they were free. The world viewed with astonishment and delight this abrupt and complete collapse of the ancient system of tyranny.

977. The Socialists gain Control of the Russian Government. A revolutionary cabinet was formed of men of moderate views on the whole, but Alexander Kerensky, a socialist and a representative of the Workingmen's and Soldiers' Council, was made minister of justice. The new cabinet declared itself in favor of many reforms, such as liberty of speech and of the press; the right to strike; the substitution of militia for the old police; universal suffrage, including women. The more extreme socialists were not content, and demanded an immediate peace on the ground of "no annexations, no indemnities, and self-determination"; that is, the freedom of all countries to decide their own fate as nations. The failure of the government to heed their demand caused uprisings in Petrograd, and much disorder

among the soldiers. Through their Council of Workingmen's and Soldiers' Delegates the socialists began to exercise great power. By July, 1917, all the more moderate members of the provisional government had been forced out and their places taken by socialists. Kerensky, urged by the Allies, made a last desperate attempt to force the flagging and utterly demoralized Russian troops to attack Austria. This drive was a lamentable failure, and was followed by further uprisings on the part of the radicals.

978. The Bolshevik Revolution (November, 1917). At length the storm which had long been gathering broke. Early in the revolution a Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Deputies, or "soviet," had been set up in Petrograd and had begun to dispute the authority of the Duma. All over Russia similar soviets, or councils of workmen, soldiers, and peasants, were instituted. In the meantime two leaders with the most extreme socialistic theories suddenly returned from exile: Lenin, who had been living in Switzerland, and Trotzky, who had been in New York when the news had reached him of the approaching revolution. In November these two leaders, supported by soldiers and the soviets, overturned the Kerensky government, founding instead "a dictatorship of the proletariat." The faction which engineered this enterprise was known as the Bolsheviki, or "majority men," a term applied to them when they constituted a majority of the Russian socialists.

The Bolsheviki proceeded at once to abolish private property in land and capital and to institute a "communist system." They denounced the war as an "imperialist struggle for trade and territory," and they called upon the warring powers to join them in a peace conference. Receiving no replies, they opened the Russian archives and published secret treaties drawn up by the European powers, showing up the selfish and dangerous bargains and engagements made before and even during the war.

979. The Peace of Brest-Litovsk. Then, late in December, the Bolsheviki began peace negotiations with the Central Powers at Brest-Litovsk, on the eastern Polish boundary. Meanwhile Finland and the Ukraine (which comprises a great

part of southern Russia) declared themselves independent and established governments of their own. So on March 3, 1918, the representatives of the Bolsheviki concluded a peace with the Central Powers in which they agreed to "evacuate" the Ukraine and Finland, and surrendered Poland, Lithuania, Courland, Livonia, and certain districts in the Caucasus (see Map 26), all of which regions were to exercise the right of establishing such governments as they pleased. Shortly after, the capital of Russia was transferred from Petrograd to Moscow. The result of this peace was that Russia was dismembered and that all the western and southern regions were, for the time being, under the influence of the Germans. (For a further account of Russian conditions see Chapter XLIII.)

III. Issues of the War

980. Grave Problems antedating the War. The war naturally rendered acute every chronic disease which Europe had failed to remedy in the long period of general peace. France had never given up hopes of regaining Alsace-Lorraine, which had been wrested from her after the war of 1870–1871 (§ 723). The Poles continued to aspire to recover their national independence. Both the northern Slavs of Bohemia and the southern Slavs in Croatia, Bosnia, and Slavonia were discontented with their relations to Austria-Hungary, of which they formed a part. The Irredentists of Italy had long laid claim to important coast lands belonging to Austria. Serbia and Bulgaria were bitterly at odds over the arrangements made at the close of the Balkan Wars (§§ 937 ff.). Rumania longed for Transylvania and Bukowina, inhabited by fellow Rumanians. Then there were the old questions as to what was to be done with the remaining vestiges of the Turkish empire and who was to control Syria and Mesopotamia. In the Far East, Japan's interests in China offered an unsolved problem. There were also the serious questions raised by the necessity of meeting the discontent with British rule in India and Ireland.

981. New Problems due to the War. The progress of the war had added new territorial perplexities to all the existing problems. The Central Powers at the end of 1917 were in military possession of Belgium, Luxemburg, northeastern France, Poland, Lithuania, Courland, Serbia, Montenegro, and Rumania. Great Britain had captured Bagdad and Jerusalem. In Africa all Germany's colonies were in the hands of her enemies, and in Australasia her possessions had been taken over by Japan and Australia. Were all these regions conquered by one or the other of the belligerent groups to be given back or not? Then what about Belgium, whose people had been abused and pillaged by their conquerors; and what of northeastern France wantonly devastated? Was not reparation due to these unhappy victims of the war?

982. War on War. But all these questions seemed to many high-minded people of minor importance compared with the overwhelming world problem, How should mankind coöperate to put an end to war forever? The world of today, compared with that of Napoleon's time, when the last great international struggle took place, has become so small—the nations have been brought so close together and are so dependent on one another—that it seemed as if the time had come to join in a last, victorious *war on war*. It required a month or more to cross the Atlantic in 1815; now less than six days are necessary, and airplanes may soon be soaring above its waves, far swifter than any steamer. Formerly the oceans were great barriers separating America from Europe, and the Orient from America; they have now become highways on which men of all nations hasten to and fro. Before the war, express trains were regularly traversing Europe from end to end at a speed of from forty to fifty miles an hour, and the automobile vied with the locomotive in speed; whereas at the time of the Congress of Vienna no one could get about faster than a horse could travel. The telegraph and telephone enabled news to be flashed to the most distant parts of the earth more quickly than Louis XVIII could send a message from one part of Paris to another. The wire-

A Convoy accompanying a Transport to protect it from Submarines

less apparatus kept vessels, no matter how far out at sea, in constant touch with one another and with the land.

983. Modern Interdependence of Nations. Nations now depend on one another for food, clothes, and every sort of necessity and refinement. Britain hoped to end the war by cutting off Germany from her usual communication with other countries, and Germany believed she could starve England by sinking the thousands of vessels which supply her tables with bread and meat. Even the rumor of war upsets the stock exchanges throughout the world. Nations read one another's books, profit by one another's scientific discoveries and inventions, and go to one another's plays. Germans, Italians, French, and Russians contribute to musical programs listened to in New York, Valparaiso, or Sydney. We continue to talk of *independent* nations, but only a few isolated, squalid savage tribes can be said any longer to be independent of other peoples. In an ever-increasing degree America and Europe have become interdependent, and their fate and fortunes tend to merge into the history of the whole world.

984. International Agreements before the War. The war only greatly emphasized all these things, which were being recognized in the previous quarter of a century. The Hague conferences, the establishment of the Hague international tribunal, the various arbitration treaties, had all been directed toward the suppression of the ancient plague of war. International arrangements in regard to coinage, postal service, commerce, and transportation had encouraged good understanding and coöperation. Innumerable international societies, congresses, and expositions had brought foreign peoples together and proved their manifold common interests.

985. Cost of Preparedness. The old problem of armaments—the possibility of getting rid of the crushing burden and constant peril of vast standing armies and the competition in dreadnaughts and cruisers—was made a burning question by the war, because the European peoples involved were bound to emerge from the conflict either bankrupt or with crushing national

What it was like to be fighting at the Front

debts. At the same time the progress of the deadly art of killing one's fellow men advanced so rapidly, with the aid of scientific discovery and the stress of war, that what was considered adequate military preparedness before the war would seem absurdly inadequate after its close. Giant guns, aircraft dropping deadly bombs, "tanks," and poisonous gases have been added to the older devices of destruction, and the submarine suggested a complete revolution in naval strategy.

986. Issue of Militarism. The great issue of the war to idealists was really "militarism," which includes two closely associated problems. First, should diplomats be permitted any longer to carry on secret negotiations and pledge their respective nations to secret agreements which might involve war? Secondly, should a government be permitted to declare war without the approval of the great mass of the citizens? The opponents of Germany regarded her as representing the most dangerous form of militarism on account of her autocratic system of government and the ideals of the ruling military class.

The kaiser often gave offense, both inside Germany and out, by speaking of himself as the anointed of the Lord and of his intention of making his own will supreme no matter what the German people wanted. He openly boasted of his mighty army and navy and warned the world against their strength. Germans who criticized his speeches as ill-advised were in danger of imprisonment. The German army was practically independent of the Reichstag and was directed by officers appointed by the kaiser. Its high commanders formed a close group which treated the representatives of the people with little respect and carried out their plans without consulting the Reichstag. But they argued that Germany was surrounded by historic enemies and was forced to maintain a strong army for self-defense.

987. The Fourteen Points. On January 8, 1918, President Wilson stated a program of world peace which embraced fourteen points. These were as follows:

1. Open covenants of peace openly arrived at.

2. Absolute freedom of navigation upon the seas alike in peace and war, except as they may be closed by international action for the enforcement of international covenants.

3. The removal, so far as possible, of all economic barriers.

4. Adequate guarantees that armaments will be reduced to the lowest point consistent with domestic safety.

5. An impartial adjustment of all colonial claims on the principle that the interests of the population must have equal weight with the equitable claims of the government whose title is to be determined.

6. The evacuation of all Russian territory and the independent determination of her own political development and national policy.

7. Belgium must be evacuated and restored, without any attempt to limit her sovereignty.

8. All French territory should be freed and the invaded portions restored, and the wrong done in 1871 in the matter of Alsace-Lorraine should be righted.

9. A readjustment of the frontiers of Italy should be effected along clearly recognizable lines of nationality.

10. The peoples of Austria-Hungary, whose place among the nations we wish to see safeguarded and assured, should be accorded the first opportunity of autonomous development.

11. Rumania, Serbia, and Montenegro should be evacuated, occupied territories restored, Serbia accorded free access to the sea, and the relations of the Balkan states determined along historically established lines of allegiance and nationality.

12. The Turkish frontiers of the Ottoman Empire should be assured a secure sovereignty; but the other nationalities under Turkish rule should be assured an undoubted security of life and an absolutely unmolested opportunity of autonomous development, and the Dardanelles should be permanently opened as a free passage to the ships and commerce of all nations under international guarantees.

13. An independent Polish state should be erected which should include the territories inhabited by indisputably Polish populations, which should be assured a free and secure access to the sea, and whose political and economic independence and territorial integrity should be guaranteed by international covenant.

14. A general association of nations must be formed for affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike.

This program was heartily and unreservedly approved by the representatives of the English Labor Party, and it made clearer than any previous declaration the purposes of the United States in entering the war against Germany.

IV. Course of the War after the Entrance of the United States

988. The Western Front, 1917. In addition to the increase in Germany's enemies the chief military events of 1917 were the following: In March the Germans decided to shorten their lines on the Western Front from Noyon on the south to Arras on the north. They withdrew, devastating the land as they went, and the French and English were able to reoccupy about one eighth of the French territory that the enemy had held so long. The Germans were disturbed by fierce attacks while establishing their new line of defense, but in spite of great sacrifices on the part of the French and British, and of the Canadians, who fought with special heroism, this "Hindenburg" line was so well fortified that it held, and with slight exceptions continued to hold during the year. Attempts to take the important mining town of Lens and the city of Cambrai were not successful for another year, but the terrible slaughter went on and tens of thousands were killed every week.

989. The German Drive of March, 1918. On March 21, 1918, the Germans began a great drive on the Western Front with the hope of gaining a decisive victory and forcing the Allies to sue for peace. Germany was in a hurry, for she knew that her U-boat warfare was not reducing England to starvation, that the United States troops were beginning to arrive in ever-increasing numbers, and that the German plans for getting supplies from Russia were meeting with little success. Moreover, the German people were suffering all sorts of bitter hardships and might at any time begin to complain that the final victory which the kaiser had been promising from the first and the hope of which had sustained them was too long in coming.

For some days the Germans were victorious and were able to push back the British almost to Amiens. But the French rushed to the aid of their allies; the drive was checked and Amiens, with its important railroad connections, was saved. No previous conflict of the war had been so terrible as this, and it is estimated that over four hundred thousand men were killed, wounded, or captured. The Germans, however, regained only the devastated territory from which they had retired a year before, and their fierce efforts to advance farther failed.

990. Foch Commander in Chief. The grave danger in which the Allies found themselves finally convinced them that their safety lay in putting all their forces—French, British, Italian, and the newly arriving troops from America—under a single commander in chief. It was agreed that the French general Ferdinand Foch (appointed March 28, 1918) was the most likely to lead them all to victory; and this confidence in his skill and character was justified. Almost immediately matters began to mend.

991. The Final Efforts of the Germans. Everyone knew that the Germans would soon make a second drive somewhere on the long front of one hundred and fifty miles, but at what point the Allies could only conjecture. The new blow came April 9, when the kaiser's armies attempted to break through the British defenses between Arras and Ypres, with the intention of reaching Calais and the English Channel. The suspense was tense for a time, but after retreating a few miles the British made a stand and were ordered by their commanders to die, if necessary, at their posts. This checked the second effort of the Germans to break through. In the latter part of May the German armies attempted a third great attack, this time in the direction of Paris. They took Soissons and Château-Thierry, which brought them within about forty miles of the French capital. In June they made a feebler effort to extend to the south the strip of territory gained in the first drive. Here they were opposed for the first time by the American troops, who fought with great bravery and ardor.

992. United States Troops in Action. The first contingent of United States troops had arrived in France in June, 1917, under the command of General Pershing, who had a long and honorable record as a military commander. He had in his younger days fought Indians in the West; he served in the Spanish-American War and later subdued the fierce Moros in the Philippine Islands.

By the first of July, 1918, about a million American troops had reached France and were either participating actively in the fierce fighting or being rapidly and efficiently trained. They had taken their first town by the end of May, 1918, and gained great distinction for themselves by coöperating with the French in frustrating the German attempt to break through at Château-Thierry. Northwest of that town they forced back, early in June, the picked troops of the kaiser sent against them.

933. The German Tide turned. During the following weeks the Germans lost tens of thousands of men in minor engagements and finally, on July 15, 1918, made a last great effort to take Reims and force their way to Paris, but this drive was speedily turned into a retreat. During the following month the combined efforts of the French and Americans served to drive the Germans far back from the Marne and put an end to their hopes of advancing on Paris. The French general Mangin warmly praised the valor of the Americans during these "splendid" days when it was his privilege to fight with them "for the deliverance of the world." Then the British began an offensive on the Somme, east and south of Amiens. By the end of September the Germans had been pressed back to the old Hindenburg line; this was even pierced at some points, and the Allied troops were within a few miles of the Lorraine boundary.

994. American Soldiers in the Last Phase. The American troops in France, numbering slightly over two million men before the armistice was signed, on November 11, 1918, were scattered along the whole Western Front, and it is estimated that nearly one million four hundred thousand actually took

General Pershing

part in the fearful struggle against the Germans.[1] It is impossible to mention here all the battles in which they fought valiantly, side by side with the French or British, as the hosts of the enemy were rapidly pushed back. In the middle of September the Americans distinguished themselves by taking the St. Mihiel salient and bringing their lines within range of the guns of the great German fortress of Metz. Reënforcing the British, they performed prodigies of valor in the capture of the St. Quentin canal tunnel far to the north, where thousands of lives were sacrificed. In the Argonne Forest, and especially in the capture of Sedan, on November 7, the United States troops played a conspicuous part. In the months from June to November, 1918, the battle casualties of the American expeditionary forces—killed, wounded, missing, and prisoners—amounted to about three hundred thousand.

995. Conditions in Russia. On the other fronts the fortunes of war were turning in favor of the Allies. Germany, instead of being able to get supplies from demoralized Russia, met resistance at every point. The people of the Ukraine resented her domination and began to look to the Allies to assist them in forming their new republic. In Finland civil war raged between the "White Guard" (Nationalist) and the "Red Guard" (Bolshevik), while English and American troops on the Murman coast to the north coöperated with the anti-Bolsheviki to oppose the extremists then in power.

At Vladivostok, far away across Siberia, English, Japanese, and American forces landed with the object of working westward through Siberia and, as they hoped, restoring order. Among the enemies of the Bolsheviki was a Czechoslovak army, composed of former Austrian subjects, who had deserted to fight in Russia for the Allies.

996. Bulgaria capitulates (September 29, 1918). As a part of the great forward movement organized by Marshal Foch, the

[1] The United States proposed to have at least four million men in France by June 30, 1919. The limits of the draft were extended so as to include all able-bodied men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five.

Marshal Foch

combined Serbian, Greek, English, and French forces in the Balkans once more became active in Serbia and rapidly pushed back the Bulgarians, who, with the help of the Germans and Austrians, had overrun the country three years before. Neither Germany nor Austria was in a position to send aid to their ally, and on September 29, 1918, the Bulgarians threw up their hands and asked for an armistice. This was granted on condition of absolute surrender. The defection of Bulgaria proved decisive, and it was clear that Turkey could not keep up the fight when cut off from her Western allies, and that Austria-Hungary, who had spent the best of her strength and was now open to invasion through Bulgaria, must soon yield.

997. Turkey surrenders (October 31). Turkey was the next to give up the fight. In Palestine General Allenby followed up the capture of Jerusalem (December, 1917) by the relentless pursuit of the Turkish armies. The English and French speedily conquered Syria, taking the great towns of Damascus and Beirut, and the Syrians could now celebrate their final deliverance from the century-long, cruel subjugation to the Turks. The Turkish army in Mesopotamia was also captured by the British. So Turkey was quickly forced to follow Bulgaria's example and accepted the terms of surrender imposed by the Allies (October 31).

V. Fall of the Hohenzollern and Hapsburg Dynasties and Close of the War

998. The Plight of the Germans. Thus the loudly heralded "peace drive" of the Germans had turned into a hasty retreat on the Western Front, and their Eastern allies had dropped away. The oncoming troops from the United States, steadily streaming across the Atlantic, brought new hope to the Allies; for the Americans were fresh and brave and full of enthusiasm, and they were backed by a great and rich country, which had thrown its well-nigh inexhaustible resources on the side of the war-weary Allies in their fight against the Central Powers.

The Germans began to see that they had been grossly deceived by their leaders. The ruthless use of the U-boats had not succeeded in subduing England, but it had aroused this new and mighty enemy across the Atlantic, whose armies found themselves able to cross the ocean in spite of Germany's submarines. The Germans had forced shameful treaties upon the former Russian provinces with the purpose of making the poor, discouraged, and famine-stricken people help support the German armies. This plan failed to relieve German distress; her commerce was ruined, her people starving, her national debt tremendous, and she had no hope of forcing her enemies to pay the bills. She was deserted by both her Eastern allies. Austria-Hungary alone continued feebly to support her against a world coalition brought together in common hostility toward her policy and aims.

999. Austria collapses (November 3). But even Austria-Hungary was fast giving way. Torn by internal dissension and the threatened revolt of her subject nationalities, disheartened by scarcity of food and by the reverses on the Western Front, she sent a note to President Wilson, October 7, requesting that an armistice be considered. By the end of the month her armies were retreating before the Italians, who in a second battle on the Piave not only swept the Austrians out of northern Italy but quickly occupied Trent and the great seaport of Trieste. On November 3 Austria-Hungary unconditionally surrendered, accepting the severe terms that the Allies imposed on her.

But Austria-Hungary had already disappeared from the map of Europe. The republic of the northern Slavs, Czechoslovakia, had been proclaimed, and the southern Slavs, or Jugoslavs, no longer recognized their former connection with Austria and Hungary. Hungary itself was in revolt. Under these circumstances the Hapsburg ruler of Austria-Hungary resigned all share in the government, November 11 (§ 1024).

1000. Germany asks for Peace. Germany herself was on the verge of dissolution, as it proved. Early in October it seems to have become apparent to her military rulers that there was no

possibility of stopping the victorious advance of the Allies, and the imperial chancellor opened a correspondence (transmitted through the Swiss minister) with President Wilson in regard to an armistice. She expressed her willingness to "make peace on the basis of President Wilson's Fourteen Points." President Wilson made it plain that the Allies would not stop their advance except on condition that Germany surrender, and on such terms that she could not possibly renew the war. "For," the President added, in his third note, "the nations of the world do not and cannot trust the word of those who have hitherto been the masters of German policy."

1001. The Hohenzollerns overthrown. The German War Council, including the kaiser and crown prince, made a vain effort to save the old system. General Ludendorff, who had had command of the German armies, was sent off, and the Allies were informed that far-reaching changes in the government had been undertaken which assured the people a complete control not only over the government but over the military power (October 27).

Soon the German government began to deal directly with Marshal Foch in its eagerness to secure an armistice at any cost, for a great social revolution was imminent. Moreover, the Allied forces were closing in on Germany all along the line from the North Sea to the Swiss boundary, and the Germans were retreating with enormous losses of men and supplies. On November 9, to the astonishment of the world, it was announced that his Majesty, Emperor William II, had abdicated. He soon fled to Holland, and the House of Hohenzollern was a thing of the past. The king of Bavaria had been forced off his throne the day before, and all the monarchies which had composed the German Empire were speedily turned into republics. On November 10 a revolution took place in Berlin, and a socialist leader, Friedrich Ebert, assumed the duties of chancellor with the consent of the previous chancellor and all the secretaries of state. Even Prussia had become a republic overnight. The German Empire of Bismarck and William I was no more.

THE SURRENDER OF THE GERMAN FLEET

A view taken from one of the boats of the British navy, showing the arrival of the German fleet when it surrendered to the Allied fleet in accordance with the terms laid down in the armistice

1002. Terms of the Armistice. Meanwhile negotiations in regard to an armistice were in progress. Representatives of the German government made their way across the lines and met General Foch, November 8, and received the terms which the Allies had drawn up.

The Germans were required to evacuate within fifteen days all the territory they had occupied—Belgium, northeastern France, Luxemburg, and Alsace-Lorraine. Moreover, the German forces were to retire beyond the eastern bank of the Rhine, and that portion of Germany which lies west of the river was to be occupied by troops of the Allies. All German troops in territories formerly belonging to Austria-Hungary, Rumania, Turkey, and Russia were to be immediately withdrawn. Germany was to hand over her war vessels, submarines, and vast supplies of war material, and put her railroads and all means of communication on the left bank of the Rhine at the disposal of the Allies. She was to free all war prisoners, and restore the money and securities taken from Belgium. Moreover, the blockade of Germany was to be continued throughout the Peace Conference. These and other provisions were designed to make any renewal of the war on Germany's part absolutely impossible. Hard as were the terms, the Germans accepted them promptly, and on November 11 the armistice was signed at Rethondes, in the forest of Compiègne. The World War was now at an end. The Germans, however, believed that in the end they would secure a fair peace based on the Fourteen Points.

1003. Cost in Property. It is estimated that during the World War nearly sixty million men were mobilized. Of these nearly eight million were killed in battle and over eighteen million wounded. Of those who recovered perhaps a quarter or more were permanently mutilated or crippled. The loss among the civilian populations was tremendous, owing to famine, disease, and massacres, amounting to perhaps seventeen million lives.

The national debts of the nations participating in the war were in the case of the Central Powers raised from about five to forty-four billions of dollars, and in the case of the Allies

GERMAN DELEGATES ARRIVING WITHIN THE FRENCH LINES, TO SECURE TERMS OF THE ARMISTICE FROM MARSHAL FOCH. (FROM A DRAWING BY A FRENCH OFFICIAL ARTIST)

One of the most dramatic events in history occurred when the German delegates, traveling in automobiles bearing the white flag, made their way to the headquarters of the Allied Generalissimo. There the Germans made their final advance, not as conquerors, as they had arrogantly boasted that they would, but as suppliants for peace, admitting their overwhelming defeat

from twenty-one to eighty-six. Five thousand six hundred and twenty-two British merchant ships were sunk, nearly half of them with their crews on board. The French Chamber of Deputies calculated that the damage done by the Germans in northern France amounted to almost thirteen billions of dollars. These figures give some hint of the really unimaginable costs of the conflict in life and treasure.

1004. Sacrifices of the United States. When our own country entered the war, all the other combatants were worn and weary with the great struggle. Considering the population and vast wealth of the United States, our sacrifices in men and goods were slight compared with what the European belligerents suffered; but these sacrifices were terrible enough to make plain to us the unutterable horrors of war and the absolute necessity of coöperating with the rest of the world in preventing the recurrence of another such stupendous catastrophe.

QUESTIONS

I. What was the attitude of the people of the United States toward the war? What differences of opinion existed? What problems had the government to face? Sketch the policy of President Wilson. What led to the declaration of war by the United States on Germany? Give a list of the powers at war with Germany and her allies in 1918. Give the chief military operation of 1917.

II. Describe the Russian revolution of 1917. What were the aims of Kerensky? What were the objects of the Bolsheviki? Give the terms of the peace of Brest-Litovsk.

III. What were the chief sources of international rivalry and misunderstanding before the World War? What new problems were added by the war? What is your attitude in regard to war? What makes war more disastrous now than it was in Napoleon's time? How did the German government and military system appear to Germany's enemies? Give some of the chief items in the Fourteen Points.

IV. Describe the German drive of 1918. What part did the United States troops play? Why were the Germans unable to maintain their positions? What members of the German alliance first surrendered?

V. Describe the fall of the Hohenzollern dynasty. What were the chief terms of the armistice?

CHAPTER XLII

THE PEACE CONFERENCE AND THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES

I. Terms of the Peace

1005. The Peace Conference. The Allies decided that their representatives should meet in Paris and the neighboring Versailles to settle the terms of peace that they would impose on the vanquished. Two months passed, however, between the signing of the armistice and the opening of the conference, January, 1919. Meanwhile France took over Alsace-Lorraine, and the allied armies occupied the German provinces on the right bank of the Rhine and took control of three bridgeheads,—the British establishing their headquarters at Cologne, the French at Mainz, and the Americans at Coblenz.

By the time the Peace Conference began, Austria and Hungary had already fallen apart. Italy, Serbia, and Rumania had, according to secret agreements made during the war,[1] enlarged their territory by annexing long-desired land of their neighbors. Poland had reappeared as a republic, the two new states of Czechoslovakia and Hejaz (formerly part of the Ottoman Empire) had been recognized, and these three countries had been invited to send delegates to Versailles. Unlike France at the Congress of Vienna (§ 642), the defeated powers were not per-

[1] While the war was going on, a number of secret treaties were made between the European powers, which in their judgment had prior claim to any settlements which should be made at Versailles. By the treaty of London (April, 1915), Great Britain and France promised Italy, for her coöperation in the war, their support in her efforts to gain Istria, Dalmatia, and other territory of "unredeemed Italy" (§ 955). In 1916 Great Britain, France, and Italy agreed to back Rumania in her claims to portions of Hungary. Agreements of a similar nature, although less definite, had been made with Serbia.

mitted to send delegates to the conference, but were informed that they would receive the terms which the Allies arranged.

Five great powers—Great Britain, France, the United States, Italy, and Japan—organized the conference and took the leading part in all the discussions and in the final decisions at Versailles. But there were delegates from the British dominions—Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and also from India; from Brazil and eleven others of the Latin-American republics; from Belgium, Serbia, Greece, and Rumania; from the new states of Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Hejaz; from the republic of China, Siam, and the African state of Liberia. So thirty-two states, scattered all over the globe, had their representatives on hand to take part in, or at least watch, the momentous proceedings. The question of Russia's participation in the peace settlement was left to be decided by the conference. No nation which had remained neutral in the war was included in the negotiations.

1006. Organization of the Conference. In organizing the work of the conference the five great powers resolved to reserve the right of making decisions to a central committee composed of their own representatives, who alone were to be permitted to attend all the meetings of the conference. The other members were only to be summoned when special interests affecting them were to be taken up. While the detail of the various matters coming up for discussion was to be studied by a committee of fifteen (composed of two representatives each for the five great powers and five additional members for all the other powers), all final pronouncements were to come from the "Supreme Council." This was at first the "Council of Ten"—two representatives from each of the five powers; later it was reduced to four members; and finally the "Big Three"—Clemenceau, Lloyd George, and President Wilson—assumed authority and made all the important decisions.

1007. Protests from the Smaller Powers. The organization of the conference caused great dissatisfaction on the part of the smaller powers. It was especially objected to by Belgium, one

of whose representatives made a vigorous protest at an early meeting of the conference, demanding representation for Belgium on all committees. Other small nations joined in the protest, resenting the assumption on the part of the great powers that they had a right, in secret council, to dictate to the rest of the world. They emphasized especially the first of President Wilson's Fourteen Points, that there were to be "open covenants openly arrived at." The great powers argued, however, that the responsibility for winning the war had been theirs, and therefore the right to make the peace was theirs; further, that it was impossible, in view of the conflicting interests of many of the powers, great and small, to accomplish the tremendous work of the conference in a large assembly.

1008. How the Treaty was Drafted. The public sessions of the conference were few, and only formal business was discussed at these meetings. The work was done, as had been arranged, by committees reporting to the Supreme Council, of which President Wilson, Premier Lloyd George, and the aged Clemenceau (elected president of the conference) were the most conspicuous personalities.

The conference opened on January 18, 1919; and until the end of April there were but five full sessions of the delegates, three of them devoted to the discussion of the League of Nations (§§ 1015 ff.). Very little of the plans for territorial changes, reparations, and other important matters was known by the delegates until the sixth general session, on May 5, when a draft of the peace treaty was submitted to the conference as a whole and accepted by the delegates.

1009. Difficulties involved in Preparing the Treaty. There were many delicate points to be settled in the long and arduous work of preparing the treaty. At one time it seemed as if the five powers themselves would fall out with one another over the question whether Shantung should be given back to China or be turned over to Japan (§ 863) and whether the city of Fiume should go to Italy. President Wilson was especially intent on having his plan of a League of Nations incorporated in

the treaty as a safeguard against future wars. Clemenceau represented the great anxiety of his nation so to weaken Germany that she should never again be in a position to invade France.

The Treaty of Versailles when finally completed and handed over to Germany contained four hundred and forty articles, with annexes, and would fill about two hundred pages of a volume of the size of the one you are reading. The first twenty-six articles contain the Covenant of the League of Nations. Following this come the terms which relate to Germany's boundaries and her rights and interests outside Germany; military, naval, and air clauses; and provisions covering prisoners of war, penalties, reparations, financial questions, guarantees, and a large number of other matters.

1010. Germany signs the Treaty, on June 28, 1919. On May 7 the treaty was presented to a delegation representing the German government, with the understanding that any communications in regard to its provisions should be made in writing within fifteen days. When the Germans learned the terms of the treaty, they denounced it as revengeful and ruinous to their country. They sent long protests to the conference, maintaining that the treaty violated President Wilson's Fourteen Points, and that the failure to fix a definite sum for the final bill of reparations would mean slavery for them, while the immediate payments demanded by the Allies exceeded all the wealth that Germany possessed. They asserted that even if they were forced to sign the treaty, its obligations could never be fulfilled. They constantly refused to acknowledge their sole responsibility for the war, and insisted that this question could be decided only by a committee of experts provided with the documents from the foreign offices of the warring countries.

The counter-proposals which they made to certain clauses of the treaty were answered by the Allies, and certain modifications were made by June 16, when the Germans were allowed five days more in which to accept or reject the terms. Many Germans were violently opposed to the signing of the treaty and preferred that the Allies should occupy Germany, since,

Signing of the Treaty of Peace in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles, June, 1919

they claimed, the demands of the treaty would only lead to a war of revenge. This bitter feeling resulted in the departure of the German delegation from Versailles. Shortly afterward, however, a new German cabinet notified the Allies that it would accept the treaty. On June 28 their representatives met the Allies and reluctantly signed the document in the very palace at Versailles where William I and Bismarck had in 1871 proclaimed the German Empire.

1011. Reduction of Germany's Power. By the terms of the treaty Germany gave up Alsace-Lorraine to France and the three towns of Moresnet, Eupen, and Malmédy to Belgium—the latter town to hold a plebiscite[1] after its surrender; she ceded a great part of her provinces of Posen and West Prussia to the restored Polish Republic; and she agreed that some of her eastern possessions should join Poland if the people showed by a plebiscite that they so desired. She made a similar agreement in regard to Schleswig, to determine whether its people preferred to join Denmark. Danzig was to be a free city under the control of the League of Nations, but within the Polish customs union. Germany surrendered all her colonies in Africa and the Pacific, to be turned over to the British Empire, France, and Japan, as mandatories under the League of Nations (§ 1018).[2]

1012. Provisions affecting Germany's Military Strength. Germany was to surrender to the Allies eight battleships, eight light cruisers, forty-two destroyers, fifty torpedo boats, and all her airships and submarines.[3] In future the German army was

[1] A plebiscite is a vote of the people taken in order to determine their wishes. In the cases referred to here the decision was to be made between remaining a part of Germany and being transferred to another state. When properly taken, the plebiscite is a means of "self-determination" (§ 987).

[2] German East Africa went to Great Britain, German Southwest Africa became part of the Union of South Africa, while the Cameroons and Togoland went to France. In the Pacific the German possessions north of the equator fell to Japan and those south of the equator to Great Britain, who handed them over to Australia (with the exception of Samoa, which was given to New Zealand, and the island of Nauru, which was retained by Great Britain).

[3] While the Allies were debating what disposition was to be made of the ships to be handed over by Germany, the great German fleet interned at Scapa Flow was sunk on orders (so it was reported) from the German admiralty.

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CELEBRATION IN STRASBOURG OF THE RETURN OF PEACE AND THE REUNION OF ALSACE WITH FRANCE

never to exceed one hundred thousand men, and compulsory military service was to be abolished. Germany's fighting vessels were to be reduced to thirty-six in all, and she was not to

THE "BIG THREE"

Lloyd George (to the left), Clemenceau, and President Wilson returning from Versailles after the signing of the treaty of peace with Germany

use submarines. No military airships were to be built to replace those surrendered. Germany was neither to import nor to export munitions of war; and all arms, munitions, and military equipment were to be strictly limited, and the manufacture of

such material was to be carried on only in factories approved by the Allies. The forts on the eastern, or right, bank of the Rhine and the great fortress of Heligoland were to be destroyed. The Allies were to continue to occupy the west bank of the Rhine until the terms of the treaty should be carried out.

1013. The German Indemnity. The most difficult question of the treaty was the fixing of the amount of reparations which the Allies demanded as payment for the damage which the Germans had done during the war. In order to handle this problem an Inter-Allied Reparations Commission was appointed which was to decide by May 1, 1921, the amount Germany owed the Allies and what she could pay. This commission was given wide powers to determine what Germany's resources were and to fix the amounts which she must deliver in money or goods before and after that date. The commission had the further right, if Germany refused to abide by its decisions, to declare the nation in default, upon which the treaty provided that the Allies could then administer penalties. These penalties were not defined in the treaty.

At the start Germany was required to make a first payment of some five billions of dollars, the rest to be distributed over a period of thirty years. She was to surrender most of her fleet, as we have seen, and to build ships for the Allies to the amount of two hundred thousand tons every year for five years. Large quantities of coal were to be delivered to France for ten years, and the deposits of the Saar coal basin[1] were to go to France as payment for the destruction of French coal mines. Germany was to bear the cost of the armies of occupation and the expenses of the Reparations Commission. These and other

[1] The Saar Valley was taken from Germany for fifteen years and placed nominally under the direction of the League of Nations. At the end of this period a plebiscite is to be taken to decide upon its future. As the district had a population of over half a million Germans who did not apparently wish to be separated from their fatherland, prominent British statesmen protested before Parliament against this violation of the principle of "self-determination," while Lord Robert Cecil deplored the fact that the League should have responsibility for the Saar situation.

provisions (including the trial of the kaiser) were to be guaranteed by the occupation of the left bank and bridgeheads of the Rhine by Allied forces for fifteen years, the territory to be gradually evacuated as the indemnity was paid.

1014. Conflicting Estimates of the Treaty. While President Wilson and Premier Lloyd George defended the treaty, there was great division of opinion in regard to its provisions, both among those who attended the conference and those who later read the document. Lloyd George maintained in a speech of July 3, 1919, that the terms of the treaty were terrible but just. The plotters of the war, he said, must be punished, not for revenge but to discourage crime; he challenged anyone to find any clause which was not in accordance with justice and fair play. President Wilson said on September 6, 1919, in a speech at Kansas City: "I came back from Paris bringing one of the greatest documents of human history. One of the things that made it great was that it was permeated throughout with the principles to which America has devoted her life."

This satisfaction with the settlement was not shared, however, by others. Mr. Lansing says in his book, "The terms appear immeasurably harsh and humiliating, while many of them seem to me impossible of performance." General Smuts, premier of South Africa (p. 437), when about to sign the treaty, distributed a statement in which he said: "I feel that in the treaty we have not yet achieved the real peace to which our peoples were looking. . . . The promise of the new life, the victory of the great human ideals for which the peoples have shed their blood and their treasure, the fulfillment of their aspirations toward a new international order and a fairer, better world are not written in this treaty. . . . The real peace ought to follow and amend the peace of the statesmen."

The economic provisions of the treaty were studied by British, Italian, and American financial experts, many of whom reached the conclusion that the terms would prove difficult to enforce and would in that case greatly hinder the financial recovery of Europe (§§ 1034f.).

II. The League of Nations

1015. Purpose of the League of Nations. The first section of the treaty with Germany is the Covenant of the League of Nations, one of the most significant and far-reaching documents in the history of mankind. At the second meeting of the peace conference, on January 25, President Wilson offered a resolution to establish a commission to draw up a charter for "a League of Nations created to promote international coöperation." This league, the resolution says, "should be treated as an integral part of the general treaty of peace and should be open to every civilized nation which can be relied on to promote its objects."

From this time on, President Wilson never deviated from the idea of making the plan for the League a part of the treaty; and so firmly did he believe in the power of such a body to remedy the evils which resulted from international disagreements that he gave his assent to a number of provisions in the treaty of which he disapproved, confident that the League would right the wrongs which circumstances seemed to make unavoidable. There was much opposition to including the Covenant of the League in the peace treaty, partly on account of the delay which the discussions and changes involved. But upon this point the President of the United States remained firm.

1016. Organization of the League. According to the final draft of the Covenant, the League was to be composed of those fully self-governing states and colonies that should be able to give effective guaranties of their intention to observe its obligations and accept its regulations. In the beginning, however, Germany and her allies were temporarily excluded, and Russia and Mexico were not to be invited to join until they had established thoroughly stable governments. The League was to have its permanent offices and staff at Geneva, and was to be organized with an *Assembly* in which each of the members, including the British dominions, should have one vote, and a *Council* made up of the representatives of the five great powers (the

United States, Great Britain, France, Italy, and Japan), to which others might later be added, and of four states to be selected from time to time by the Assembly. The executive duties were to be in the hands of a permanent secretariat at the seat of the League, composed of a secretary-general and of such secretaries and staff as might be required. The Assembly and Council were to meet at stated intervals, the Council at least once a year. All important decisions were to require a *unanimous* vote.

1017. Provisions for the Prevention of War. Any war or threat of war, or any matter affecting the peace of the world, is declared in the Covenant a matter of concern to the whole League, and the League is to take any action it may deem wise to safeguard the peace of nations. Members of the League agree to submit any dispute which might lead to war either to arbitration or to investigation by the Council or Assembly. If they submit the dispute to *arbitration,* they pledge themselves to carry out the award made and not to resort to war. If they submit the dispute to *inquiry,* the Council or Assembly must fully investigate the matter and, within six months after the submission of the dispute, make a report and recommendations in regard to it. Should the report and recommendations be unanimously agreed to by all the powers except those which are parties to the dispute, the latter agree not to go to war in the matter. If the recommendations are not unanimous, the parties to the dispute pledge themselves in no case to resort to war for three months after the report is made.

Should any member resort to war in disregard of these agreements, it is deemed to have committed an act of war against all the governments and states which are members of the League, and the latter agree to sever all trade and financial relations with the offending state and to prohibit all intercourse between its citizens and their own. The members of the League also undertake to respect and preserve as against external aggression the territorial integrity and political independence of one another.

The Covenant of the League provides also for the establishment of a permanent Court of International Justice,—or "World Court," as it is often called,—to hear and determine any dispute of an international character and to give an advisory opinion on any question referred to it. The Council of the League is to prepare plans for the reduction of armaments and to control the manufacture of munitions and implements of war. All treaties are to be registered with the League and made public.

1018. System of Mandates. Certain territories and semi-civilized peoples formerly belonging to the Central Powers and not yet able to stand by themselves—parts of the Turkish Empire, of Central and Southwest Africa, and of the southern Pacific islands—are declared to be under the guardianship of the League. By a system of so-called *mandates* the guardianship of such peoples is to be intrusted to "advanced" nations, as *mandatories*, which are to seek to promote their well-being and development. The authority of the nations acting as mandatories is to be clearly defined, and they are to report annually to the League.

1019. International Plan for bettering Conditions of Labor. Under the general supervision of the League of Nations the treaty establishes also a very important International Labor Organization, on the ground that "the well-being, physical, moral, and intellectual, of the industrial wage-earners is of supreme international importance." This labor organization is designed to improve working conditions throughout the world and to secure fair conditions of labor for men, women, and children.

1020. Aims of the League as seen by its Promoters. According to Lord Robert Cecil, one of its chief advocates, the League should not be regarded as a piece of vague idealism, but as a practical method of achieving practical ends which are of importance to every citizen of every country. The changed economic conditions which have come as a result of the great advance in communication between all parts of the world, and the coöperation of mankind in ever-larger groups for business

and scientific and artistic purposes, have created a community of interests among people living in widely separated states. The progress of science makes it probable that wars in future will be far more destructive than they have hitherto been, and these reasons alone would make necessary some kind of international organization for the regulation of the conduct of states. The League, Lord Cecil believes, has at least three important duties: the maintenance of peace; the solution of international disputes by the peaceful means of investigation, arbitration, conciliation, and law; and the promotion of international coöperation in various matters affecting the interests and welfare of all nations.

Before the United States entered the war, President Wilson said: "There can be no sense of safety and equality among the nations if great preponderating armaments are henceforth to continue . . . to be built up and maintained. The statesmen of the world must plan for peace, and nations must adjust and accommodate their policy to it as they have planned for war and made ready for pitiless contest and rivalry."

1021. Attitude of the United States toward the League. Although President Wilson was the chief promoter of the League, there was much difference of opinion in the United States in regard to the wisdom of joining the League of Nations. Many felt that to join the League would be to desert the old policy of isolation and independence, which they felt to be safer than to run the risk of becoming involved in what Washington called "entangling alliances." It was urged that there was more danger of war if the United States joined the League than if it kept out. Moreover, many urged that by joining the League the United States would sacrifice some of its sovereignty and complete independence of action.

On the other hand, there was an important group who claimed that the United States could not stand aloof. Ex-President Taft, for instance, said: "The argument that to enter this covenant is a departure from the time-honored policy of avoiding entangling alliances with Europe is an argument that is blind to the changing circumstances in our present situation. The war

itself ended that policy. . . . We were driven into it because, with the dependence of all the world upon our resources of food, raw material, and manufacture; with our closeness, under modern conditions of transportation and communication, to Europe, it was impossible for us to maintain the theory of an isolation that in fact did not exist. It will be equally impossible for us to keep out of another general European war. We are, therefore, just as much interested in stopping such a war as if we were in Europe."

1022. The United States Senate fails to ratify the Treaty of Versailles. The Constitution of the United States gives the President the power, "by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the senators present concur." Accordingly, President Wilson formally laid the text of the Treaty of Versailles and of the Covenant of the League of Nations (which forms an integral part of it) before the Senate, on July 10, 1919, for its consideration and approval. President Wilson maintained that the treaty and Covenant should be accepted as a *whole*, since, if the Senate modified it, other countries would claim the same right, and its meaning and force would be "clouded from one end of its clauses to the other." About twenty-five Democratic senators stood by the President in this, but almost all the Republican senators believed that various amendments and reservations were essential, especially in the matter of the League of Nations.

Those who criticized the Covenant had many suggestions to make, few of which gained a majority when put to vote. The chief objections were that the famous Article X[1] might involve the United States in war caused by European territorial disputes in which it had no interest; that it might be forced into

[1] Article X, which had so much to do with the rejection of the Treaty of Versailles by the Senate of the United States, reads as follows: "The members of the League undertake to respect and preserve as against external aggression the territorial integrity and existing political independence of all members of the League. In case of any such aggression, or in case of any threat or danger of such aggression, the council shall advise upon the means by which this obligation shall be fulfilled."

war without the consent of Congress; that the Monroe Doctrine was not secured; that the British Empire had five votes, since its various members—Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa—were assigned each a vote; that the United States would sacrifice its sovereignty by entering the League and might not be able to control immigration, the tariff, and other matters.

After prolonged discussions of the various amendments and reservations to be included, the Senate, when it came to vote on November 19, 1919, failed to ratify the treaty. This was due partly to the fact that those who agreed with President Wilson cast their votes against a modified version of the treaty and so helped its absolute opponents to win.

The matter was taken up again in the early part of 1920, and there was further discussion, which ended in another failure (March 19) to obtain the requisite two-thirds majority for the treaty either modified or unmodified; and so it was sent back to the President unapproved, and the United States remained outside the League of Nations.

The adoption or rejection of the Treaty of Versailles (including the Covenant of the League of Nations) was an issue in the presidential election of 1920. The Republican party, which opposed ratification, was victorious and elected its candidate, Warren G. Harding. On July 2, 1921, President Harding signed a joint resolution of Congress declaring that war between Germany and the United States was at an end. Six weeks later a brief treaty was signed in Berlin by which the Germans agreed to give the United States all rights and advantages included in the Treaty of Versailles, except those specially excluded at the wish of the United States.

III. The Fate of Germany's Allies

1023. Treaties with Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey. While the settlement with Germany was the chief interest of the "Big Three" at the Peace Conference, Italy and the eastern European states were equally concerned with the terms which

were to be made with Austria; for the future of the Balkan region was to be largely determined by this treaty. There was a good deal of delay in preparing the terms; and there were bitter protests from representatives of the Balkan states, who complained that they had not been consulted, as had Italy, in the preparation of the settlement. The treaty was finally handed to the Austrian delegation on July 20 and signed at St. Germain-en-Laye, near Paris, on September 10. Peace was concluded with Bulgaria on November 27, by the Treaty of Neuilly (also near Paris). It was not until August 10, 1920, that the Treaty of Sèvres was signed with Turkey; but this settlement was not ratified, owing to the opposition of the new Turkish government at Angora which had been set up in the meanwhile (§§ 1029 ff.).

1024. Dissolution of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Before considering the terms of the Treaty of St. Germain we must turn aside for a moment to review the extraordinary fate which had overtaken the Hapsburg monarchy during the last days of the war.

The repeated declarations of President Wilson in regard to the right of nations to self-determination had greatly encouraged those peoples in Austria-Hungary who had long wished to free themselves from Hapsburg dominion. Emperor Charles, who had come to the throne at the death of Francis Joseph (§§ 701 ff.) in 1916, was well aware of the opposition to his dynasty, which had been increasing during the latter part of the aged emperor's reign and during the war. Hoping to save his kingdom, however, Charles issued a manifesto on October 16, 1918, in which he stated that in accordance with the wishes of his peoples Austria would become a federal state in which every race should be free to establish its own government within the federation.

But Charles's proclamation came too late. Czechoslovakia had already been recognized as an independent state, and the rights of the Jugoslavs had been acknowledged. After the publication of the manifesto the dissolution of the empire followed rapidly. Hungary, which had been working toward com-

plete independence, and to which the proclamation did not apply, immediately seized this opportunity to withdraw from the Dual Monarchy (§ 719). National assemblies were organized in October at Agram, Laibach, Prague, and Vienna. These meetings hastened the break-up of the army, since the various assemblies, beginning with Hungary, called home their troops to defend the new governments they were now setting up. On November 11 Charles resigned all share in the government of Austria, though he did not relinquish his crown. On the following day the new National Assembly at Vienna proclaimed Austria a republic, and the ancient and powerful kingdom of the Hapsburgs came to an end. The terms of the Treaty of St. Germain were imposed not on the empire as it had entered the war, but on a new republic which was but a small fraction of the former territory of the House of Hapsburg.

1025. Provisions of the Treaty of St. Germain. By the Treaty of St. Germain, Austria recognized the independence of Czechoslovakia, Jugoslavia, Poland, and Hungary. Three million Germans living in Bohemia, Moravia, and Slovakia now formed a minority in a Slavic state. Trent, South Tyrol, Trieste, and Istria were awarded to Italy, while other portions of Austria helped to form the neighboring states of Jugoslavia, Poland, and Hungary. The new republic of Austria included the provinces of North Tyrol, Vorarlberg, Salzburg, Carinthia, Styria (north of the Drava), a strip of western Hungary (Burgenland), and Upper and Lower Austria. Sections on the east and southeast were to hold plebiscites. The army was to consist of volunteers and never to exceed thirty thousand, while the navy and air forces were to be given up. As in the treaty with Germany, the total sum of reparations was left unfixed, but Austria was required to pay a "reasonable sum" before May 1, 1921. All merchant shipping was to be surrendered, and other payments made in goods and live stock. The Danube was to be free to all nations, but Austria was to be allowed access by railway to the Adriatic. The treaty forbade union with Germany without the consent of the League of Na-

tions. This provision denying the Germans of Austria the same right of self-determination which had been allowed other nationalities within the empire seemed to them a great hardship.

1026. The Struggle of the Austrian Republic. The little republic of Austria has an area less than that of Ireland, and a population somewhat less than one fifth that of England. It is governed by a president and a Federal Assembly of two houses.

THE AUSTRIAN REPUBLIC AND THE HUNGARIAN MONARCHY

Since the war this little remnant of the Austrian Empire has had a desperate struggle to maintain itself. With the loss of its provinces it has been deprived of its means of support; its trade has fallen off; its people have been without work and for several years have faced starvation. The government has been bankrupt, the cost of food has risen, while the value of the krone finally sank to a point where ten thousand kronen were necessary to purchase one dollar. In January, 1921, the government informed the Entente that it had come to the end of its resources and was ready to hand over the government to the

Reparations Commission. In September, 1922, the League of Nations (to which Austria had been admitted in December, 1920) adopted a scheme by which Austria could borrow $135,000,000. This was guaranteed by European governments, and the United States took a large issue of bonds. A Committee of Control composed of the guarantors was appointed, which has succeeded in greatly improving the conditions in the republic.

1027. Hungary loses most of its Territory. Before the war there was great discontent in Hungary owing to the unequal distribution of the land, most of which was in the hands of wealthy aristocrats or belonged to the Church. The deep-rooted hatred of the lower for the upper classes prepared the way for the revolution of October 30, 1918, and the establishment of a new government on November 12.

The severe terms of the armistice, by which large portions of Hungary were given to her neighbors, caused grave dissatisfaction with the party in power, which had agreed to these losses, and the government soon fell into the hands of a group of Socialists and Communists. Their chief leader, Bela Kun, had been a prisoner in Russia and had been greatly impressed with the theories of Lenin. The Communists, who represented only a minority of the people, maintained their power by a reign of terror and organized an army to support them. Their government had lasted only about six months when all classes were eager to be rid of them.

Shortly after the army of the Communists was disbanded the country was overrun by Rumanians, who, in defiance of the Supreme Council, advanced far into Hungary, even occupying the capital, Budapest. When on an ultimatum from the Entente they were forced to evacuate, they took locomotives, motor cars, telephones, machines, typewriters, linen and beds from hotels, cattle, grain, and everything that they could drag along with them, as revenge, for what they had suffered from the Germans.

Following the Communist rule a wave of reaction swept over the country, called the White Terror. In March, 1920, Admiral Nicholas Horthy was appointed regent and has continued to be

at the head of the government since that time. King Charles made two attempts to regain his throne. In October, 1921, he made an air flight from Switzerland to Hungary and landed in Burgenland, where he was joined by a royalist army of twelve thousand. He was defeated, however, by Admiral Horthy and arrested. The Allies demanded his deposition, and he was exiled to the island of Madeira, where he died in April, 1922. The sentiment of the country is still divided, however, and there is a party of royalists who still look upon Charles's son Otto as the rightful heir to the throne. Hungary has remained a monarchy in name, but with a vacant throne. The country has been in a desperate condition ever since the war, and the League of Nations has been considering the postponement of reparation payments and the negotiation of a loan for Hungary similar to the one which helped Austria to recover herself.

1028. Bulgaria since the War. The Treaty of Neuilly deprived Bulgaria of even more territory than she had lost during the Balkan wars. She had to give up western Thrace, which had been granted her by the Treaty of Bucharest (§ 937), and was thus cut off from the Ægean Sea. A portion of her western border was handed over to Jugoslavia, and the rich farm lands of the upper Dobrudja awarded to Rumania. She was forced to pay heavy reparations, greatly reduce her army, and surrender most of her warships and all her airships and submarines. In spite of these crushing penalties Bulgaria has forged ahead and made the payments required of her. Her able minister, Stambulisky, who was assassinated in 1923, had favored a faithful carrying-out of the treaty as a means of reëstablishing prosperity in Bulgaria. Her rapid recovery has been partly due to the sturdy peasants who own the lands they work, and partly a result of the freedom from military expense and the peaceful employment in reconstruction work of the small army permitted her by the treaty.

1029. The Disappearance of the Ottoman Empire and the Rise of the Nationalists. The severe armistice terms imposed on the Turks (§ 997), and the occupation of their chief seaport,

Smyrna, by the Greeks, with the approval of the Allies, had momentous effects on the Ottoman Empire, which had been gradually shrinking into narrower and narrower boundaries. It will be recalled that at the close of the Balkan wars (§ 937) the Sultan retained, of all his former European possessions, only Constantinople and a small area to the west. England had declared Egypt independent of Turkish rule when the Sultan joined with the Central Powers (§ 954), and the Entente had encouraged a revolt of the Arabs against the Turks and had recognized the independent kingdom of Hejaz in 1916. To these losses were added the conquests of the Allies and the occupation by them of Syria, Mesopotamia, and Palestine (§ 997).

When, therefore, in addition to the surrender of the occupied territory, the Allies demanded that Turkey give up Smyrna and Thrace to the Greeks, many of the young patriotic Turks and members of the military class determined to take measures to prevent the disaster which threatened their country. During the year 1919 a strong Nationalist movement was organized, and General Mustapha Kemal Pasha, an officer who had fought at Gallipoli, soon became its leader. The object of this movement was to prevent any further loss of Turkish territory and to assume control of affairs in place of the feeble government of the Sultan. An army was speedily organized; and by the end of the year a government had been established at Angora whose influence dominated Asia Minor, while the government of Constantinople amounted to little.

When, in April, 1920, the Supreme Council handed to the delegates from Constantinople the treaty which they had arranged, the Angora government declared its intention to resist, and denied the right of Constantinople to conclude peace for Turkey. It soon became evident to the Allies that the Nationalists were in earnest and that only force would compel them to recognize the settlement. The Greeks decided to help the Entente enforce the treaty, and their armies advanced as far as Brusa and also occupied Thrace. The government at Constanti-

nople was intimidated by the success of the Greeks, and in August, 1920, its delegates reluctantly signed the Treaty of Sèvres.

The Nationalists, however, still refused to recognize the treaty as valid, and began to strengthen themselves by making secret agreements with Russia. They made arrangements with Italy, and later with France, by which in exchange for valuable oil and trade concessions they received the support of these countries against the Greeks. In the summer of 1922 the Greeks, who had advanced far inland with the hope of overthrowing the government at Angora, found themselves unable to hold their positions, since they received no help from the Allies, while the Turks had been supplied with tanks, airplanes, and munitions. Unable to hold out, the Greek armies collapsed and fled toward the coast; half their forces were killed or captured. Mustapha Kemal Pasha immediately demanded the return of Constantinople, Adrianople, and eastern Thrace.

1030. Settlement of the Near-Eastern Question. There were great difficulties involved in coming to any final agreement with the Turks over what has come to be called the Near-Eastern question. This was due partly to the unyielding attitude of the Angora government and partly to the conflicting interests of the powers themselves, all of whom sought some advantage in this rich, undeveloped country.

Representatives from the nations met at Lausanne in November, 1922, to try to arrange some settlement with the Turkish Nationalists. After much debate and almost hopeless difference of opinion a treaty was finally signed in July, 1923, which constituted a tremendous victory for the Turks, since by its provisions the Treaty of Sèvres with its punitive measures was reversed.

The Nationalists managed to build on the ruins of a conquered and dying Turkish empire a new and aggressive state which declared its independence and insisted on what it considered reasonable terms of settlement. It defied the powers, and refused to acknowledge itself bound by contracts and

commitments made by the old Ottoman Empire. By the terms of the Treaty of Lausanne the Entente forces were to evacuate Constantinople, which was to go to Turkey; the Straits of the Dardanelles were to be open for the passage of ships of all nations, but the sovereignty was to remain in the hands of Turkey. Although she lost Syria, Mesopotamia, and Palestine (which became mandated territories), Turkey regained Smyrna and eastern Thrace. The new government rid itself of the hated "Capitulations," or right of foreigners in Turkey to be tried not by Turkish laws but by those of their own particular country. From this time on, the Turks declared, there should be but one law for Turk and foreigner alike. The treaty provided for an exchange of Greek population in Turkey for Turks living in Greek territory, and peace was made between the two countries.

1031. Turkey becomes a Republic, October, 1923. Shortly after the victory over the Greeks, the Angora government accused the Sultan of having agreed to the destruction of Turkey by acknowledging the Treaty of Sèvres, and forced him to leave the country. The office of Sultan was abolished. The heir apparent, Abdul Mejid, was declared Caliph, but with no governmental powers whatever. In October, 1923, however, the most startling change overtook Turkey when its National Assembly voted that the "form of the Turkish state is republican." The new constitution provides that the president of the republic shall choose the prime minister and other ministers from the Assembly, which elects the president. The Assembly is elected by universal male suffrage. Mustapha Kemal was made first president. The new government plans, according to its prime minister, by the strictest economy to pay its debts, to reduce taxation (especially on farms), and to promote education. In March, 1924, the Assembly voted the abolition of the Caliphate and the expulsion from Turkey of all members of the House of Osman, from whose effort to combine religion and politics, it claimed, Turkey had already suffered enough harm. They declare that the Moslems in Turkey no longer need or desire an intermediary between themselves and Allah.

IV. The Treaties fail to bring Peace to Europe

1032. Continuation Conferences from 1920 to 1923. When the Peace Conference closed, early in 1920, there were many pressing problems which still awaited solution. The treaties with Hungary and Turkey had not been signed. The Adriatic question (so important to Italy), a settlement with Russia, and the fixing of a total sum of reparations for Germany had not been arranged. To provide some means of dealing with these questions a Council of Ambassadors and a Council of Premiers were established, to continue the unfinished work of the conference. The ambassadors were to take care of matters of routine in the carrying-out of the treaties; while the premiers, who took the place of the Supreme Council, were to settle international questions and, above all, the puzzling problem of reparations. During the following four years numerous conferences were held by the premiers, the Reparations Commission, and various experts, whose opinion was invited; but by June, 1924, the amount of Germany's liability had not been agreed upon nor had the methods of securing payment been put into operation.

1033. Difficulty of Enforcing the Treaty of Versailles. Some of the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles proved hard to enforce. Holland refused to surrender the kaiser for trial, as had been stipulated in the treaty, and all the German authorities were slow in bringing to trial those accused by the Allies of high crimes and misdemeanors in connection with the war. The Germans urged that the disorders in their country made it difficult for them to reduce their armed forces. France, however, doubted the good faith of the Germans in this respect and feared that their failure to disarm had a serious meaning.

1034. The Reparations Question. But of all the provisions of the treaty the settlement of the amount of reparations which Germany was to pay, and the arranging of a method by which she should make payment, turned out to be the most difficult as it was undoubtedly the most vital. The total sum had been left indefinite (to be settled by May, 1921), depend-

ent somewhat upon Germany's resources; but it was pointed out in many quarters that there could be no real peace until the total amount was fixed and arrangements were made for payment. The Germans flatly declared that they would not set to work again seriously if all they produced for a long time was to be taken from them by the Allies. In the course of time British statesmen began to advocate a speedy settlement of the amount so that European countries could settle their debts and begin to recover after long years of distress and disorder.

In February, 1921, a commission of the Allies fixed the German indemnity at two hundred and twenty-six billion gold marks, which is about fifty-six billion dollars. This was to be paid in annual installments over a period of forty-two years. In addition, the Germans were required to pay 12 per cent of their exports and to make large deliveries of coal and other goods to the Allies. The Germans replied that the demands of the Allies were impossible of fulfillment, and offered instead to pay fifty billion gold marks, twenty billion of which, they claimed, had already been paid. The Allies returned an ultimatum to the German government stating that if their demands were not met within four days they would occupy German territory. When no answer was received to the ultimatum, French troops on March 8 occupied Düsseldorf and other towns in the industrial region of Germany. The Germans steadily protested that they could not meet the requirements, and the value of the German mark sank lower and lower. In May, 1921, the total was reduced to one hundred and thirty-two billion gold marks (about thirty-three billion dollars). Although she made the first payment on the new plan, Germany soon dropped behind again.

1035. Occupation of the Ruhr by the French. By the summer of 1922 the British and French had come to differ widely in their attitude toward the reparations problem. The British believed that Germany's creditors would be better off if a sum which she could pay were decided on. They were, moreover, opposed to military measures. The French favored a system of "productive guaranties"—control of German resources, mines,

forests, customs, taxes, and profits of industry. The British held that these were not guaranties but penalties, and that it would be disastrous to insist upon them. In January, 1923, however, the Reparations Commission declared Germany behind in her deliveries of coal and wood. Thereupon a hundred thousand

A Registered Letter from Germany

Germany, which had been an extraordinarily well-organized country before the war, found itself in a sad plight when the conflict came to an end. One of the most striking illustrations of this was the necessity of issuing a vast amount of paper money, so that the mark, which was worth about twenty-four cents before the war, late in 1923 had sunk to a point which made it necessary to use stamps to the amount of eighty billions of marks to send a registered letter to the United States. Each of the eight stamps stands for what would have amounted to nearly two and a half billion dollars before the war

French and Belgian troops entered the coal and iron region of the Ruhr and occupied Essen, Mannheim, and Karlsruhe. The President of the United States recalled the American army from the Rhine. The occupation of the French was not a success economically, for it was met with passive resistance and a railroad strike which paralyzed traffic. When the French arrested some of the coal magnates, seventy-five thousand workers went

on strike. The French soon had a line from Switzerland to Belgium guarded by their troops. The Germans maintained they would not make a move until the territory was evacuated, while the French declared they would not leave until they had satisfaction. In the fall of 1923, however, the Germans gave up passive resistance and offered to accept the decision of an international tribunal as to what they should pay and how they could pay it.

In November, 1923, the Reparations Commission therefore voted to name two committees of experts to determine (1) the means of improving Germany's financial situation at home and (2) the amount of German wealth which had been sent abroad and how it could be recovered. General Charles G. Dawes, the former Director of the Budget of the United States, was made chairman of the first committee, and the former chancellor of the British exchequer, Reginald McKenna, chairman of the second. These committees handed in their reports in April, 1924, calling for yearly payments by Germany subject to increase proportionate to her prosperity. The French, British, and German governments approved the reports, and the Germans agreed to follow their provisions. An American, Mr. Parker Gilbert, was selected to supervise the carrying-out of the plan. The total sum for reparations, however, was not fixed.

1036. Continued Disorder: Poland and Russia. The signing of all the pompous peace treaties by no means brought peace and order to Europe. New wars were bred in bringing the World War to an end, for almost none of those who put their names to the various documents were satisfied with the settlements which involved their own countries. Poland was so intent on adding territory which she claimed belonged to her by "historic right" that she was soon at war with Czechoslovakia, Russia, the Ukraine, and Lithuania. The war with Russia (1919–1920) was particularly serious, and ended with a victory for the Poles. Russia ceded a considerable part of White Russia to Poland, and the Ukraine was forced resentfully to give up her claims to eastern Galicia. The result was that Poland, with the help of

France, became a large country with a bare majority of Poles, the rest of the population being made up of Germans, Lithuanians, White Russians, and Ukrainians, in addition to a large Jewish element.

In Russia, Trotzky, the communist leader, organized a powerful "Red Army" to put down the attempts to overthrow the Bolsheviki. The counter-revolutionists, under the command of generals like Kolchak, Denikin, and Wrangel, were encouraged by the Allies to undertake campaigns in Siberia and Russia against the Soviet government; but in this fierce civil war the Bolsheviki were victorious and remained in power.

1037. Disorders in the Near East. By the treaty with Turkey, Palestine and Mesopotamia came under British protection and Syria under French administration; while the Arab kingdom of Hejaz, with the holy city of Mecca (long under Turkish rule), was recognized as an independent state.

The Syrians proclaimed themselves an independent kingdom and resisted French dominion. The result was an armed conflict in which the French were easily victorious. In Mesopotamia likewise the natives were restless, and Great Britain was compelled to maintain a large military force to preserve order and "help the people of the country to work out their own salvation as a self-governing state." Finally, in October, 1922, the British recognized Mesopotamia as the independent state of Irak, under King Feisal, a son of the ruler of the Arab kingdom of Hejaz. Great Britain was careful to see that all financial and international matters were kept under her control.

After the Bolsheviki had defeated the counter-revolutionists, they aided the Persians to drive the British out of their country and establish an independent monarchy (§ 927).

1038. Greece becomes a Republic. The Greeks had not entered the war until the summer of 1917. King Constantine and Queen Sophie, a sister of the kaiser, were supposed to be in sympathy with the Central Powers. On the other hand, Venizelos, the able premier and patriot, was eager to join the Allies, especially since Greece would then be at war with her ancient

enemy, Turkey. For Venizelos had long dreamed of freeing the millions of Greeks still under Turkish rule, and creating a united kingdom for all Greeks. In 1917 the Allies encouraged the deposition of Constantine, and Greece entered the war. In 1919 the Greeks were permitted to occupy Smyrna, and a year later the Treaty of Sèvres awarded them Smyrna, with the region lying back of it, as well as Thrace.

In the meanwhile, as we have seen, the Nationalists had become a formidable power in Turkey (§ 1029) and refused to recognize the terms of the treaty. Although the Greeks had at first been successful in defeating the Turks, the Allies realized the growing strength and the importance of this new government at Angora, and the desirability of not offending it too seriously since the commercial interests of the powers were deeply involved in Turkey. They were, therefore, not inclined to support the Greeks in their attempts to overthrow the Angora government, and in 1921 advised a modification of the treaty by which the Greeks should evacuate Asia Minor but retain Thrace. This advice the Greeks indignantly rejected. Moreover, in spite of the warnings of the Allies, the Greeks, having become dissatisfied with the policy of Venizelos, recalled Constantine in December, 1921.

Several attempts were made by the Supreme Council and the League to persuade the Greeks to give up Asia Minor to the Turks; but their armies pressed forward, only to meet the terrible defeat which has already been described (§ 1029). Smyrna, whither the Greeks had fled, was burned, and this was followed by massacres and the expulsion of the Greeks from Asia Minor and Thrace. Greece was soon crowded with starving refugees.

When the Greek troops learned that the Allies had offered eastern Thrace to the Turks, revolution broke out. The abdication of Constantine was demanded, and a revolutionary committee tried and condemned to death five former anti-Venizelist ministers and the commander in chief of the army in Asia Minor, whom they regarded as responsible for the disaster. Although the son of Constantine, George, was made king by the

committee, his reign was brief; for in March, 1924, he was deposed, and in April, as a result of a plebiscite, Greece was proclaimed a republic.

V. The New Map of Europe

1039. New Ideas of Government since the Congress of Vienna. When in 1815 a great congress of diplomats assembled at Vienna to rearrange the map of Europe, their chief ambition was to restore the old régime and place once more on their thrones the monarchs who were "legitimately" entitled to rule. They determined ruthlessly to suppress any uprisings on the part of foolish and visionary patriots and reformers who wished to secure constitutions or suchlike checks on the powers of their lawful sovereigns, or who dreamed of uniting kindred peoples into national states. But for all these plans and precautions the reformers gradually succeeded in adding ten new independent national states to the family of European nations.

A hundred years later, at Versailles, the representatives of the great powers undertook once more to remake the map of Europe and bring peace to a weary land. At this conference, however, Austria no longer dictated to a vanquished France, but victorious France to a defeated and divided Austria—thus "time brings in his revenges." Metternich, Talleyrand, and Alexander were gone, but Clemenceau, Lloyd George, and Orlando were there; and since, in the meantime, European history has grown into world history, and European wars have become world wars, there was also the representative from the great republic across the Atlantic, whose armies had now for the first time fought on the battlefields of Europe. Although it would have seemed proper to Metternich that the statesmen of the great powers should meet in secret session to determine the future of Europe, the ideas which were presented at their conferences would have seemed to him preposterous. For these diplomats no longer placed their faith in kings and emperors, but in government by the people, and welcomed the establish-

ment of republics in place of the ancient monarchies. Moreover, they believed in what they called the right of nations to self-determination. The changes in the map of Europe since 1918 are largely the result of these two ideas of government,—democracy and self-determination,—which would have stood for revolution and ruin to the conservative gentlemen at the Congress of Vienna.

The most startling changes are those which have taken place in central and eastern Europe, where the proud dynasties of the Hohenzollerns, Hapsburgs, and Romanoffs have disappeared, and their empires become republics in the hands of socialist and communist leaders. Hardly less astonishing is the dissolution of the ancient Ottoman Empire and the appearance, in its place, of the republic of Turkey. Seven new republics (Finland, Esthonia, Lithuania, Latvia, White Russia, Ukraine, and Transcaucasia) have been formed from the western and southern fringe of the Tsar's realms; while the larger part of the Hapsburgs' territory has been taken to restore Poland, to enlarge Italy, Rumania, and Jugoslavia, and to make the new republic of Czechoslovakia.

1040. The New Slavic States: Czechoslovakia and Jugoslavia. The defeat of the Central Powers brought the long-awaited "great day" of rejoicing for the Slavic race, for it meant not only the recovery of Polish territory from Hapsburg rule but also the formation of two new states—Czechoslovakia and Jugoslavia. The most prosperous of the "succession states" of Austria-Hungary is the republic of Czechoslovakia, composed of the old kingdom of Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia, and Slovakia. The Czechs and Slovaks constitute about 60 per cent of the population, while there are three and a half million Germans and a million Hungarians and members of other minor racial groups. The Germans form a separate party in parliament and insist on using their own language. The old hostility between Germans and Slavs has continued under the new government.

While the presence of different races causes the new republic some problems, there are none of the serious difficulties which

are found in Poland, Rumania, and Bulgaria. While jealously guarding her newly won independence, Czechoslovakia favors helping Austria financially, and wishes to create an understanding between all the succession states which will promote commerce and trade and will restore the prosperity of central Europe. She has already concluded favorable treaties with her neighbors, with the Entente powers, and with Russia.

The brief career of Jugoslavia, "the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes," has not been so fortunate as that of her sister state to the north. Although the movement for the union of these southern Slavs is an old one, there has been great difficulty in amalgamating so many different peoples — Serbs, Croats, Slovenes, Dalmatians, Bosnians, Herzegovinians, and Montenegrins —into a harmonious state. Although of the same race, they have been separated for many centuries, and differ widely in their social, political, and religious ideas and in their education. All elements have now combined, however, under the new king, Alexander. In addition to their difficulties at home, the Jugoslavs have had a good deal of trouble with Italy, which was bitterly opposed to the strengthening of the Slavic kingdom and insisted upon keeping Fiume and the neighboring region inhabited by many Italians and serving as an outlet to the sea. This matter has been finally settled by giving Fiume to Italy and the neighboring port of Baros to Jugoslavia.

JUGOSLAVIA, THE KINGDOM OF THE SERBS, CROATS, AND SLOVENES

1041. Greater Rumania. Although Rumania was overwhelmed by the Germans she nevertheless emerged from the war with an area more than double the size of her former kingdom and with a greatly increased population. While she was hesitating

to throw in her lot with the Allies, a secret treaty was arranged by which the powers agreed to support her claims to considerable portions of her neighbors' territory inhabited by Rumanians. Accordingly, when the Allies were victorious, she speedily indemnified herself for her losses during the conflict by annexing Bessarabia (which had belonged to Russia since 1812), Bukowina (which was part of Austria), and Transylvania and other portions of Hungary. The Allies finally approved all the treaties which the Rumanians made with these provinces.

Greater Rumania now included Rumanians, Serbians, Hungarians, Russians, Bulgarians, and Turks. In order to gain a hold on all these alien peoples, the parliament voted a number of reforms. These included universal suffrage and a redistribution of the land. Large estates were divided up, and part of the land assigned to the peasants, who were to pay a portion of the cost while the state paid the rest. Citizenship was also granted to native-born Jews. In October, 1922, King Ferdinand and Queen Marie, who had succeeded to the throne in 1914, were crowned with great splendor, and a new constitution was ratified by the king. But the management of the enlarged kingdom proved a difficult task, and the conflict with Russia over the annexation of Bessarabia threatened at times to become serious. A conference at Vienna in March, 1924, was broken up when the Russian representative declared that his country would never recognize the right of Rumania to their province of Bessarabia.

1042. The Baltic Republics. Four former provinces of the Russian empire now appear on the map as new states. Finland, an independent duchy under the rule of the Tsar as duke, was, with the overthrow of Nicholas II, speedily recognized as an independent state and admitted to the League of Nations. The other provinces—Esthonia, Lithuania, and Latvia—have not had so peaceful an experience in establishing themselves, crowded as they are between Germany, Poland, and Russia. No sooner had they escaped the danger of German domination than they found themselves at war with Soviet Russia. The Entente had used Esthonia as a base for attacking

the Bolsheviki, since the Baltic republic feared the Communists as much as it had the Germans. When Germany was defeated, these Baltic states proclaimed their independence, and in 1920 treaties were signed between them and Russia. All four of these new republics, in spite of hardships, have managed to balance their budgets (bring their annual expenses within their income) and are on the way to recover their prosperity.

1043. National Uprisings in the British Empire; Egypt becomes Independent. Acting on President Wilson's principle of the right of each nationality to determine its own destiny, representatives of the Egyptian Nationalists appeared at the Peace Conference in Paris and sought to place on record their demand for independence. While the Peace Conference took no official notice of this demand, the British government in 1920 announced that a project for granting independence to Egypt would be considered. Late in the year Egyptian delegates appeared in London to confer with a British commission on the terms of the new order; but they could not agree on details, so Egypt for the time being remained in the status of a protectorate.

After agitation and even open rebellion the British government realized the serious opposition to its policy, not only in Egypt but throughout the Mohammedan world, and announced that it was ready to terminate the protectorate. Accordingly, on February 28, 1922, it acknowledged the independence of Egypt. Shortly afterward Sultan Ahmed Fuad Pasha was made king of Egypt. In April, 1923, a constitution was adopted which declares Egypt a sovereign state, the government to be a hereditary monarchy. The king is given authority to declare war and make peace; but an offensive war requires the consent of the parliament, which is composed of a senate, partly nominated by the king and partly elected, and a chamber of deputies elected by universal suffrage. The constitution provides for free and compulsory education.

1044. Discontent in India. During the World War, Indian princes and troops came to the aid of Great Britain, but at the same time there were strong movements for the independence of

India, or at least for self-government. Many Indian agitators were arrested and imprisoned or executed; mass meetings were broken up or fired upon by British forces.

In December, 1919, Parliament passed the Government of India Act, which, according to the Secretary of State, although it did not pretend to give the Indians a permanent constitution, provided a beginning in the gradual development of self-governing institutions in India. It put into the hands of the people certain matters of government, and reserved to the British other matters, to be given over as the people were prepared to assume responsibility. While the moderates accepted the measure, the extreme Nationalists, under the leadership of Mr. M. K. Gandhi, rejected it as utterly inadequate, and, insisting upon India's right to self-determination, demanded complete self-government immediately.

The Indians, however, were divided among themselves—the native princes being friendly toward British rule, while millions of the people followed their leader Gandhi, who was regarded as a "holy" man, in his program of "non-coöperation," hoping thereby to force the British to accept their point of view. Gandhi's policy of "passive resistance," which the British regarded as refusal to obey the law, included the withdrawal of children from British schools, the boycott of British goods, the boycott of British courts by native lawyers, and the refusal to accept any positions under the British government service, military or civil, or to serve as officials. The carrying-out of this plan and the famine and high cost of living resulted in rebellion and great disorder throughout India, accompanied by increasing severity of the law for all offenses of sedition. In March, 1922, Gandhi was arrested and condemned to imprisonment for a term of six years, but was, in less than two years, released on account of ill health. The Swa-raj (self-rule) party, which believed that a moderate policy would be more effective, was indorsed by Gandhi in 1924. Gandhi realized that his methods had proved unsuccessful and recommended that non-coöperation be given up except for the refusal to buy foreign cloth.

QUESTIONS

I. How was the Peace Conference organized? What provisions were made in the treaty to reduce the power of Germany? What were the duties assigned to the Reparations Commission?

II. How is the League of Nations organized? What are mandates? Why did the United States refuse to ratify the treaty? What are the aims of the League?

III. Describe the break-up of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy. Compare the Austrian Republic with the former Austrian Empire. Give a brief account of events in Hungary since the war. How did the Ottoman Empire become the Turkish Republic?

IV. What were some of the causes for continued disorder in Europe? Why was the question of German reparations so important? What was the policy of the Polish Republic after its restoration? Under what circumstances did Greece become a republic?

V. Compare the general policy of the Versailles Conference with that of the Congress of Vienna. What new states were formed from the territory of Austria-Hungary? Compare the situation of Serbia before the war with her position today? Recall as much as you can of the history of Egypt since the days of the ancient Egyptians. What are the recent developments in India?

CHAPTER XLIII

FACING THE PROBLEMS OF OUR WORLD TODAY

I. Various Ideas of bettering Man's Condition

1045. How Man's Recent Achievements have raised New Problems. We have traced in this book the manner in which the human race has worked its way up from the state of a wild, naked, and houseless hunter, without fields, domesticated animals, or metal tools, to the marvels of human ingenuity which now surround us on every side. Many of these wondrous inventions and much of our knowledge are, as we have seen, of *very recent* date. A whole revolution in human equipment has taken place in the last half-century. Previously change was slow, and mankind adapted itself to it gradually; now it is incredibly rapid, and we are unable to keep up with it. We cannot avail ourselves to the full of our new knowledge or use our new inventions properly.

We are, for instance, in a position to produce more of the necessities and luxuries of life than we do, and in easier and more economical ways, if only the old methods of doing business and carrying on trade did not hamper production. We do not yet know how to distribute our greatly increased wealth in a fair way so as greatly to reduce misery and discontent. We waste our resources, such as wood, coal, and oil, owing to bad methods. Chemists, while they have made us far more comfortable than ever before and have discovered ingenious ways of making the land bring forth its fruits in abundance, have, at the same time, invented terrible means of destroying men and women by powerful explosives and suffocating gas, so that the problem of getting rid of war has become a far more pressing one than it was in the time of Napoleon.

1046. The Reformers, Old and New. In days gone by, men rarely hoped to escape from their poverty and discomfort, and seem usually to have accepted them without much protest or grumbling. Their diseases they believed were punishments sent by Providence for their sins or were due to the evil work of the devil. But modern knowledge, the production of wealth by machines, and, above all, the rapidly extending ability to read as well as the right to vote have encouraged the expression of discontent. There have long been reformers; but for the most part they strove, like the Stoics and the medieval Christians, to reconcile men to their misfortunes instead of striving to improve the general conditions and standards of life through a scientific study of man and the world in which he lives.

In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries a new, modern kind of reformer began to appear, who held that the lot of human beings could be indefinitely bettered if new knowledge and institutions could take the place of those old beliefs and habits which had grown up in the previous ages of ignorance and superstition. Many of these modern reformers rely greatly on improving government, which they feel should not confine itself to securing order, administering justice, and making war, but should teach and guide its citizens so as to increase comfort and prosperity and fend off disease. Let us quote the views of a modern reformer who has done much, in rewriting history and in his many stories, to urge men on to better things.

1047. Hopes of H. G. Wells. In bringing to a close his *Outline of History*, Mr. Wells says: "We know enough today to know that there is infinite room for betterment in every human concern. Nothing is needed but collective effort. Our poverty, our restraints, our infections and indigestions, our quarrels and misunderstandings, are all things controllable and removable by concerted human action; but we know as little how life would feel without them as some poor, dirty, ill-treated, fierce-souled creature born and bred amidst the cruel and dingy surroundings of a European back street can know what it is to bathe every day, always to be beautifully clad, to

climb mountains for pleasure, to fly, to meet none but agreeable, well-mannered people, to conduct researches or make delightful things. Yet a time when all such good things will be for all men may be coming more nearly than we think. Each one who believes that brings the time nearer; each heart that fails delays it."

1048. Some of the Great Problems of our Day. It is a striking fact that a great many of our modern conveniences and pleasures and possibilities of learning, which would have filled our great-grandparents with astonishment, are within the reach of all of us, whether rich or poor. Even a very moderate income serves to provide comforts and luxuries which no king could have commanded a hundred years ago. But, as Mr. Wells says, "*We know enough today to know that there is infinite room for betterment in every human concern.*" All thoughtful people recognize this and wonder how this improvement is to be brought about. They long to have our education changed so that we shall feel more at home in our world and be better fitted to manage our lives and to get the most out of them. They see that our present methods of carrying on farming, mining, manufacturing, and trading are often full of waste and unfairness. The rich seem to have far more than they need, and the poor far less than their hard work entitles them to. Again, the forms of government which have so far been invented often work badly, and we do not always get the wisest and most honest men in office. Lastly, there is constant ill feeling between nations, and a chance of new wars worse than the last.

So there are at least four great problems that face mankind: (1) our education must be so improved that we shall understand our world and ourselves better and be in a position to make the best use of the great discoveries which are constantly going on; (2) our business methods and our ways of making and distributing commodities and dividing up the profits of manufacture and trade must be rearranged so that the most and best things possible will be furnished to the greatest number of people at the least cost; (3) government must be run with wisdom

and understanding and without graft and dishonesty; (4) the fearful hazard, suffering, and expense of modern warfare must be in some way done away with by creating friendly relations between the nations of the earth, who are nowadays so dependent on one another and have so many interests in common.

1049. Interdependence of Human Problems. In Europe all these problems have attracted more attention since the World War than ever before, and it is impossible to settle one without considering the others. In the various reforms and revolutions that take place all these issues are involved. For example, if government were different from what it has been in the past, it might serve to check wars and improve education and economic conditions. If education were improved, we should choose better people to govern us,—people who would conduct business with less friction and loss. So all the four problems really belong together. It is not the business of the historian to take sides in these matters, but to show how the problems have arisen. Every reader of this book will soon be a voter and will have to decide what opinion he will express on all these perplexities.

1050. Conservatives and Radicals. The great mass of people are so busy getting a livelihood, attending to family and personal affairs, and finding some amusement, that they have little time or inclination to think about the great problems we have mentioned. Those who do think about them—especially those who write and lecture about reform—differ widely in regard to what is the matter and what should be done. There are, on the one hand, those who believe that conditions are fairly satisfactory as they are, or, at least, that it is highly dangerous to try to change them except with the greatest caution. These so-called *conservatives* are usually comfortable and satisfied themselves and are convinced that others could be so if they would only work harder and take advantage of their opportunities. Most conservatives believe in reform and progress, but feel that real progress can be achieved only very slowly. They are very fearful of what they call "revolution" and are

suspicious of those who criticize existing institutions and business methods. They are apt to call such critics "socialists" or "anarchists," sometimes quite unjustly.

Opposed to the conservatives are the *radicals*, of whom the Russian Bolsheviki are good examples. As we shall see, they proclaim a fundamental revolution. They maintain that conditions are hopelessly bad so long as the State is permitted to engage in wars of conquest, that those who do not work should not be permitted to vote, that private business should be largely done away with, and that the great mass of people should be considered as all-important and their interests the *whole* object of government. They believe in a violent attack on what they call "capitalism," by which they mean the present business system. They allege that the interests of the "proletariat," or laboring people, are diametrically opposed to the present business system and that the people have no chance of betterment unless they fight under socialistic leaders for their cause.

Obviously, many reformers who are anxious to do something to better the world are neither conservatives, like some comfortable English lord, nor professed Bolsheviki, like Trotzky and the late Lenin. Between the extreme conservative and the extreme radical are to be found all sorts of thoughtful teachers, writers, and speakers who go to neither extreme, but who recommend that we carefully consider the defects and injustices and waste of our present ways of doing things and see how they may be remedied. These moderate reformers see the great difficulties of changing old habits, and believe that ill will and violence only beget new *disorder,* not *order.*

1051. The Various Kinds of Socialists. Since the socialists, radical and moderate, have become an important element in European affairs, having been in 1924 in control of Russia, Germany, France, and Great Britain, and an important force in other countries, we must consider the beliefs and policy of this particular political party. Of the socialists (especially of Karl Marx) something has been said in an earlier chapter (§§ 679 ff.). But the socialists differ greatly in their ideas of what policy

should be pursued in order to gain their ends. The extremists have felt that the mass of the people, or "proletariat" (to use their word), should rise against the "bourgeoisie" (as they call our present business and leisure classes) and violently take over the control of land, mines, factories, railroads, steamship lines, telegraphs, and telephones. On the other hand, many socialists feel that progress is to be made not by violence but by patient waiting and careful deliberation. Karl Marx himself seems to have thought that the change would be much like that which did away with feudalism and serfdom and with the old monarchs by the grace of God.

1052. European Socialists often Peaceful Reformers. In Europe, including Great Britain, there are many mild socialists. They do not believe in kings or autocracies or heavy military preparation. They think that the working class should have far more influence than it has had hitherto, that essential industries should be controlled by the people, and that wars should be avoided because they fall so heavily on the mass of the population. It is now possible to make a fairly clear distinction in Europe between the socialists who do not believe in violence but in peaceful readjustment and those who stand boldly for a war of the workers, or proletariat, on the capitalists, or bourgeoisie. If we call the reformers who are quite ready to defend their country against attack and who oppose violent revolution moderate socialists, and those who believe in a *class struggle* between capitalists and workers extreme socialists or, rather, "communists," we have a classification corresponding to the facts. For example, the British Labor ministry is peacefully socialistic, the German government is controlled by moderate socialists, whereas Russia is under the sway of real communists.

II. New Experiments in Government

1053. The Many New Constitutions in Europe. There was an outburst of constitution-making after the war as the result of the break-up of Russia and Austria-Hungary and the creation

of new states. Germany became a socialistic republic, and the various states included in the German Empire did away with their monarchs and adopted republican institutions. It is impossible here to examine these constitutions in detail, but it is important to note certain tendencies in these new experiments in government.

The first prominent feature of the new constitutions is, of course, to get rid of kings and princes, who, as we have seen, began to be attacked about the time of the French Revolution, but many of whom had managed to retain a good deal of their ancient power down to the end of the World War. The presidents of the new republics are ordinarily not given a great deal of influence in the governments, for fear that they might resemble the old sovereigns.

Then the old-fashioned upper Houses, composed of nobles and persons appointed by the sovereign, have tended to become less important. For example, in Germany what we should call the House of Representatives is now really the controlling force in lawmaking,—not the upper House, which was formerly the chief power (§ 737). Even in Great Britain, as we have seen, the House of Commons had, before the war (§ 774), managed greatly to reduce the ancient power of the House of Lords. Everywhere there has been a tendency to give the working classes more influence and to introduce a ministry responsible to the people, as in Great Britain.

1054. Control of Treaties. The war, and the revelation of secret treaties concluded without the knowledge of the people or even their representatives, have suggested that constitutions should provide for some control of treaties by the various parliaments or by committees of these parliaments. Otherwise a whole nation may be committed to go to war as a result of some secret arrangement made by the diplomatists. The United States provides against this by requiring the approval of the Senate for all treaties with foreign powers. This is a troublesome matter to arrange, for many think that the representatives of various nations ought to be in a position to talk over matters of impor-

tance and reach conclusions and compromises without having their conferences immediately reported in the newspapers. For this reason President Wilson's idea of covenants "openly arrived at" is hard to carry out.

1055. Proportional Representation. Since the war there has been a great extension of what is called "proportional representation." This is a plan for giving parties a representation in proportion to the votes they are able to muster. In the United States the results of an election are determined by a party gaining a majority of the votes. For example, if five offices are to be filled and the Republican ticket should get 12,000 votes, the Democratic ticket 11,500, and the Socialists 2000, the successful candidates would all be Republican, although they did not get a real majority,—only a so-called plurality. In this way the Democrats, who had almost as many votes as the Republicans, would be left with no representatives; whereas in an election held in Denmark in 1920 according to a system of proportional representation we find 48 seats assigned to the Liberals (who cast about 350,000 votes), 42 seats to the Socialists (who cast 300,000 votes), 28 seats to the Conservatives (who cast 200,000 votes), 17 seats to the Radicals (who cast about 122,000 votes), and 4 seats to the little Trade party (supported by less than 30,000 votes).

This system prevails in one form or another in Belgium, Holland, France, Italy, Germany, and a number of other European states. In all these countries there are a good many parties, and they are all assured a fair representation, according to the number of their supporters. Where there are two great parties, as in the United States and (formerly) in Great Britain, it is often argued that it is best to let the party which gains the majority of votes manage the government so long as it is not defeated at the polls. But this argument is not so convincing where the voters are split up into numerous small parties.

1056. War on the Politicians. There was much talk in Europe, even before the war, about what was called "the failure of representative government." This was due partly to the

feeling that the usual method of voting left great groups of people really unrepresented and partly to the fact that the professional politician was a poor kind of person to make laws and manage public affairs. In order to get as many votes as possible for himself or his candidates the politician has, above all, to know how to make speeches and get up platforms which will please people of different views. He is tempted to make promises that he cannot fulfill and to express himself in vague, high-sounding terms which can be interpreted in various ways according to the taste of the listener. It follows that men of distinction and experience in business, engineering, agriculture, sanitation, or other important fields of human interest and knowledge rarely seek office, and rarely attain it if they desire it. The problem is to replace the mere politicians, intent on getting and keeping votes, by men of scientific training and men experienced in business and manufacturing. This problem is being faced in European countries.

President Ebert of Germany
1918–1925

The new republican constitution of Germany provides for an economic council of the realm in which all kinds of industries and occupations shall be represented. This is to advise and aid the ministry and to suggest new laws. Such an economic council was arranged in 1920 and illustrates the general tendency to have special interests and needs represented in government. There were to be in the council representatives of farming, manufacturing, commerce, banking, insurance, small business and handicraft, railways, shipping, postal service, marketing, fisheries, consumers' associations, organizations of women, government officials, and various professions. This list will show

how very hard it is to carry out a plan of representing human interests and activities,—to decide, for example, whether the doctors should have more votes than the railroad men, the postal clerks than the farmers or fishermen. They are all necessary to our comfort. But the main point to be noticed is that this is the beginning of a great and difficult attempt to put the management of government into the hands of competent people and so reduce the power and importance of the mere politician and professional vote-getter.

1057. Emancipation of the Farming Classes. In the earlier portions of this book something has been said of the sad state of the farming classes from the times of the Gracchi down to the abolition of serfdom in Prussia and Russia. Although every human being is dependent on the farmer for food, the agricultural class has been badly treated through the ages and is in an unfavorable position to defend itself against the extortions of the landlords, middlemen, and financiers. After the war the peasants of Bulgaria issued a sort of declaration of rights, a "Green Manifesto," in which they called attention to the fact that those who farm the land have "everywhere and always been compelled to submit to unjust and evil treatment." They proposed an international union of the peasants so that their voices "too long silent shall be heard."

Whether the farming classes can form an effective international union or not, there is no doubt that in eastern Europe they are getting possession of the land, especially in Russia, Hungary, and the Balkan states, and that the great landowners, who have held over from the days of serfdom, are disappearing. This is one of the most fundamental of the results following the war.

1058. British Parties in Power from 1895 Onward. We have seen in a previous chapter (§§ 760 ff.) the peculiar way in which the British Parliament is arranged so as to respond to the views of the voters. From 1895 to 1905 the Conservative (or Unionist) party controlled the ministry. From 1905 to 1915 the Liberal party was in power and succeeded in en-

acting some of the laws advocated by Lloyd George and in reducing the ancient influence of the House of Lords and admitting a considerable number of women to the franchise. Then the great responsibilities involved in carrying on the war led to a *coalition* between the Liberals and Conservatives, which lasted down to the armistice. A general election held in 1918 secured the coalition 467 seats, over two thirds of them belonging to the Conservatives (Unionists). But Lloyd George, who remained prime minister, had done his work: the coalition fell apart; and the Labor party, although it had at that time only 63 members, raised its voice against the feeble policy of the government. Lloyd George's cabinet resigned and was replaced by a Conservative leader. Then the Conservatives decided to "go to the country" by having a new election, November, 1922, in which they came off very well. Owing to the creation of the parliament of the Irish Free State the number of members in the House of Commons had been reduced from 707 to 615. Of these seats the Conservatives won 344—well over half. But the various Labor parties secured 142 seats, while the Liberals had only 114 members. Not satisfied with this overwhelming majority, the Conservative prime minister, Stanley Baldwin, for reasons that are not very clear, decided to have a new general election a year later, on the ground that some form of protection should be reintroduced (§ 771) to remedy the terrible problem of unemployment from which Great Britain was suffering. This challenge to free trade, the historic doctrine of the Liberal party, resulted in allying the Liberals with the Labor party against the Conservatives, and swept the Labor party into office. In the general election (December, 1923) the Conservatives were reduced to 258 seats, while Labor rose to 191.

Realizing that they would not have the support of the House of Commons, the Conservatives recommended that the "opposition" (namely, the Labor party) be asked to form a ministry.

1059. Development of the British Labor Party. The history of the labor movement in Great Britain is complicated. A great

many of those interested in improving the condition of the workingmen have relied on the formation of trade unions,—combinations of employees to make better terms in regard to wages, hours of labor, and conditions of work than could be made by single workers looking for a job. One may, of course, belong to a labor union without being in any way socialistic. That is to say, he may accept our present methods of business and only ask that the workers be treated better. The labor unions have become powerful in Great Britain, and have done their part in improving conditions.

Karl Marx spent his later life in England, and a party was formed in 1883 to forward his teachings. In general, however, the British socialists do not accept his idea that there will necessarily be a great struggle between the working class and those who at present own and conduct business. For instance, the famous Fabian Society, promoted by such well-known persons as Sidney and Beatrice Webb, H. G. Wells, and Bernard Shaw, maintains that like the Roman general Fabius, who gained his end by going slowly, the socialists should be patient and should gradually win over the public by educating them to see the defects of the existing system and the possibility of replacing it with one which will do away with waste and the misery it entails. The Fabian Society, founded in the early eighties, maintains a center for discussion in East London, and its members have written many books and pamphlets to explain their beliefs and plans.

A campaign carried on by the trade unions and the Independent Labor party (moderate socialists) resulted in securing fifty seats in Parliament in the election of 1906. After the war, conditions favored a rapid increase of the Labor party in Parliament; and finally, in January, 1924, Ramsay MacDonald, its most conspicuous leader, was invited by the king to form a cabinet, since the Conservatives, although they had a greater number of seats in the House of Commons, acknowledged that they could no longer expect the support of the House.

1060. The Labor Cabinet of 1924. In choosing his cabinet Ramsay MacDonald did all he could to remove any fear of a radical break with the past. He himself was the son of poor, hard-working parents in northern Scotland. He had entered Parliament in 1906 and had contributed much to the growing power of the Labor group. He selected Lord Parmoor, an Oxford graduate and lawyer, an ardent believer in the League of Nations; J. H. Thomas, president of the railwaymen's union, formerly a railway engineer; J. R. Clynes, who as a boy had worked in a cotton mill; Viscount Haldane, lawyer and distinguished philosopher and former war minister; Philip Snowden, the chief financial expert of the Labor party and a well-known writer on socialism; Arthur Henderson, an experienced statesman, once a worker in an iron factory; Stephen Walsh, who started his career as a coal-miner; Viscount Chelmsford, an Oxford graduate and formerly Viceroy of India; Lord Olivier, one of the founders of the Fabian Society and an authority on colonial matters; Sidney Webb, another Fabian, who has devoted his life to working out a program of social reform and to a history of labor unions; William Adamson, for twenty-seven years a coal-miner; and so on. These illustrations will show that the object of the new prime minister was to secure representatives and statesmen of all classes who shared the common conviction that the improvement of the condition of the great mass of the people, without a violent overthrow of the present system, should be the first duty of government. In short, the Labor party is a group of reformers who believed that the old Liberal party, with its confidence in the existing business system, was not in a position to undertake a real war on poverty.

1061. Ramsay MacDonald's Views. In his opening speech the prime minister said: "The national life today is far too much like an oasis here and an oasis there, placed in the middle of the great surrounding desert of distress. I do not want the desert to swallow up the oases. I want—my Government wants—the oases to spread and spread until they swallow up the desert." He declared that the proper housing of the workers

was the first great problem, as otherwise there could be no real and permanent prosperity. "While we have to be economic and scientific in dealing with material capital, we must be equally economic and scientific in dealing with human capital." Mr. MacDonald closed by saying: "We are not afraid of what fate we are to meet in the process. If misfortune befell us before the week-end, we would have made our mark on the history of these times. The world requires a stimulus to its hopes, it requires to settle down, to be given courage and confidence, so that it may use its latent powers; and, above all, the common man and the common woman must be brought into partnership in national prosperity."

RAMSAY MACDONALD AT HOME

Mr. MacDonald realized that although his party was in *office* it was not in *power*, since it was dependent on the support of the Liberals to keep a majority vote. It had to please not only the various groups within the Labor party but the Liberals as well. Nevertheless, the Labor government was able to keep itself in office for eight months. Serious opposition to its policy was aroused on the part of both Liberals and Conservatives by a proposed Anglo-Russian treaty which included a loan to Russia. This and one or two minor matters led to a general election, when the issue of the campaign turned on the dangers of a socialistic government

as against the security of a conservative policy, and the Conservatives received a huge majority. Mr. Stanley Baldwin was again appointed premier. One of the interesting features of the election was the virtual disappearance of the Liberal party. Many of the Liberals supported the Conservatives, deserting their own party, with the result that the Liberals retained only forty seats.

The Conservatives remained in power about five years. At the General Election on May 30, 1929, they were defeated by the Labor party, which gained 288 seats, while the Conservatives won 256 and the Liberals 58. Mr. Ramsay MacDonald became premier for the second time.

III. The Russian Experiment

1062. The Communist Revolution in Russia. Some account of the history of Russia under its Tsars has been given in previous chapters. We have seen how the liberal leaders who tried to introduce Western ideas and secure a constitution were cruelly persecuted by the government officials. With the deposition of the House of Romanoff and the victory of the extreme socialists, which came before the end of the World War, an extraordinary experiment in communism was begun in Russia, which has been going on since 1917. Under the leadership of Lenin, the Bolsheviki attempted to carry out a complete social and economic revolution by which the *laboring classes* should be given control not only of the government but of the land and factories and business in general, which were to be managed thereafter in the interests of the workmen and peasants. The peasants were authorized to take the estates of the great landowners and even the land of the *richer* peasants. Factories, banks, and mines were taken over by the nation, to be used for the benefit of the proletariat. The older government was replaced by a system of *soviets*, or councils, elected by groups of workers in the various factories, trades, and occupations, and by the farmers. There were local and provincial

soviets, and these elected representatives to the all-Russian Congress at Moscow.

Naturally these revolutionary changes aroused bitter opposition. In order to stifle this the Bolsheviki suppressed many forms of freedom and resorted to the cruel imprisonment and killing of their enemies—a method with which they had so long been familiar under the despotic rule of the Tsars. The leaders of the Bolsheviki claimed that these terrible measures were only temporary, but were necessary to carry out the Revolution against the opposition of its many enemies within and without Russia.

1063. The Soviet Constitution of Russia. An assembly was elected late in 1917 to draw up a new constitution for Russia, but the Bolshevik leaders found that it would not accept their ideas and were able to dissolve it. In July, 1918, an all-Russian Congress of Soviets, which takes the place of a national parliament or congress, proclaimed a constitution for the Russian Socialist Soviet Republic. Russia was declared a federation of "free nations," any one of which can retire from the union if it so desires. In 1924 the Russian federation included Russia proper, White Russia, Ukraine, the Transcaucasian Soviet Republic, and the Far-Eastern Republic, established in Siberia.

The constitution provides that the power in the State shall belong entirely to "the toiling masses," and shall be exercised through their representatives in the soviets. "The Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic considers work the duty of every citizen of the Republic, and proclaims as its motto: 'He shall not eat who does not work.'" Only "workers" may vote; consequently no one may vote or hold office who hires labor to increase his income, or who lives on his capital without doing any work, or who is a private merchant, broker, clergyman, or monk.

Private property in land is abolished, the land is to be nationalized and distributed among the farmers according to their ability to till it, and the former owners shall receive no compensation. All forests and treasures of the earth are de-

clared national property. Arrangements are to be made for transferring the ownership of all factories, mills, mines, railways, and the like to the Soviet Republic. Banks and all financial operations are to be taken over by the workers' and peasants' government.

Finally, "for the purpose of securing the working class in the possession of complete power, and in order to eliminate all possibility of restoring the power of the exploiters, it is decreed that all toilers be armed, and that a Socialistic Red Army be organized and the propertied class disarmed."

LENIN

1064. Some Attempts to spread Communistic Ideas. While the Russian Soviet Republic denounced the old kind of wars for additional territory and colonies, it declared a new kind of world war on capitalistic industry and trade of all kinds. It proposed to fight for the "victory of socialism in all lands." The representatives of extreme communism of the Russian type made attempts in Germany, Hungary, and Italy, especially, to introduce the soviet control of business. There were communist uprisings in various industrial cities. In Munich and Budapest the communists were actually in power for a short time. In Berlin there was a sharp conflict between the extreme communists, known as the Spartacides, and the moderate socialists headed by President Ebert. Encouraged by the success of the Bolsheviki, all over central

Europe workmen here and there seized factories and set up "workers' councils" somewhat like the Russian soviets.

1065. The "Third International." The socialists have usually maintained that the revolution they advocate in government, business, and trade is not limited to this nation or that, but is to be a great *international* reform affecting workingmen regardless of the country in which they happen to live; hence the war cry "Workers of the world unite!" In 1864 Karl Marx had helped form an international organization of those interested in the spread of socialism. The "First International" was discredited by the violent action of the Paris Communists in 1871 (§ 747) and finally disappeared. A "Second International" was founded in the eighties and is still in existence.

This was not radical enough to please the extreme party, and in 1918 a "Third International" was organized in Moscow under the auspices of the Bolsheviki. This has adherents in many European countries. Those in power in Russia belong to it; and one of the chief reasons why the United States has refused, down to 1924, to recognize the Russian government is the fact that it is identified with the avowed attempt to overturn the whole business system of other countries.

1066. Italy and the Fascisti. The attempts of the workingmen of Italy, under the influence of communist leaders, to take possession of factories in Milan, Turin, and other manufacturing cities had a remarkable result. A great party, called the *Fascisti* (pronounced "fasheestee"), developed to oppose a violent overturn of the usual methods of business and manufacture. The Fascisti found a leader in Mussolini, who with his supporters became a sort of dictator in 1923. He got complete control of the Italian parliament and the confidence of the king. In the elections early in 1924 the Fascisti had enough votes to continue him and their party in power. Mussolini chose a ministry made up of capable men and straightened out the badly disorganized finances of the country. He and his followers have been accused of suppressing liberty and downing their opponents by violence. Nevertheless, Mussolini

has accomplished much in doing away with strikes and in establishing conditions as they were before the demoralization of the war set in.

IV. Plans to Prevent Wars

1067. The Work of the League of Nations. During the five years following its opening session in November, 1920, the number of nations enrolled as members of the League increased from forty-two to fifty-five. In 1926 Germany was received into the League and given a seat on the Council. At the same time Spain and Brazil withdrew when the League refused to enlarge the Council in order to provide places for them. In 1929 the countries still remaining outside were Russia, the United States, Turkey, Egypt, Ecuador, Mexico, Spain, Brazil, and the Argentine Republic (which had also withdrawn from membership). The League has promoted peace in a number of important ways. It has settled numerous disputes between its members and in several instances even averted war between them. It has carried on relief work on a large scale among the refugees of war-stricken countries, especially Russia and the Greek refugees in Macedonia. It has also given valuable aid in financial reconstruction, notably in Austria and Hungary. It has organized permanent departments for the study of important problems, including finance and economics, health, disarmament, mandates, traffic in women and children, the opium industry, and the possibility of closer intellectual coöperation between nations. In addition, two related but practically independent bodies have been established: the International Labor Organization and the Permanent Court of International Justice.

1068. The "World Court." One of the most notable achievements of the League was the inauguration of the Permanent Court of International Justice outlined in the Covenant of the League. The purpose of the so-called World Court is to reduce the possibility of war by providing a tribunal of eminent judges, elected from different countries, who devote their entire time

to the settlement of disputes arising between nations. The Court was opened at the Hague in January, 1922. There are eleven judges and four deputy judges.[1] By the close of 1924, forty-eight nations had become members of the Court. Many Americans wished the United States to join the Court whether or not they wished to join the League. Finally, in January, 1926, the Senate voted in favor of entering the Court, but with a number of reservations which should be accepted by the members of the Court as a condition of the entry of the United States. But at a conference in Geneva in September, 1926, the representatives of the powers belonging to the World Court refused to accept the terms laid down in these reservations, although they desired very much that the United States should join the Court. As the Senate would not modify its conditions the United States remained outside.

1069. How the United States is involved in World Affairs. Many people in the United States wish that their country could keep clear of "entangling alliances" with European countries, but the United States has quite as good reasons as any other country for helping in every way it can to do away with war. An examination of the expenses of the United States government for a recent year will show the enormous cost of war to our country. It will be found that for past wars, including the World War, $2,084,000,000 were necessary. The preparations for future wars demanded an expenditure of $930,000,000 more. The amount left for all other purposes, such as salaries of government officials, public works, and educational and scientific activities, was about one fifth of the total outlay. Out of every dollar which was paid for taxes, about eighty cents had to go in one form or another for war.

The way in which the United States has inevitably been drawn into the European wars has become clear as we have re-

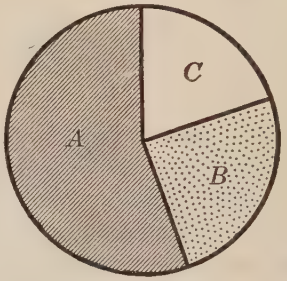
[1] Among the judges chosen was Professor John Bassett Moore, a distinguished American authority on international law. When Judge Moore resigned, Charles Evans Hughes, former Secretary of State, was elected. Neither of these Americans was an *official* representative of the United States but acted in a *personal* capacity.

viewed the past. It would seem as if our history must hereafter be bound up with that of the rest of the civilized world. Steamships and the telegraph have made the globe far smaller and the relations of nations much more intimate than formerly. This is illustrated by the apprehension felt by many that what is going on in Russia may encourage the overthrow of our whole business system, even in the United States. As a busy, peaceful, and prosperous nation the people of the United States must assume such responsibilities as are necessary to enable them to play a worthy part in promoting harmony, justice, and

A. Obligations arising from past wars, including pensions and interest on the public debt: $2,084,000,000, or about 54.6 per cent of the whole expense of government

B. For current expenses of the United States army and navy: $930,000,000, or nearly 25 per cent of the total expenses

C. Cost of conducting the government, public works, education



How Most of our Taxes have gone for War

prosperity throughout the world; for their fate is too intimately connected with the welfare of other countries to permit them to stand entirely aloof.

1070. The Washington Disarmament Conference. The fact that the United States government refused to join the League of Nations did not prevent hopeful efforts to reduce the expense and danger of armaments. President Harding, in 1921, summoned a conference of representatives of foreign governments to meet in Washington. Delegates assembled to speak for the British Empire, China, France, Italy, Japan, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Portugal, as well as for the United States. Deliberations were opened on November 12, with remarkable speeches by President Harding and Charles Evans Hughes, Secretary of State. Discussions continued for nearly three months and were embodied in treaties and resolutions. The United

States, the British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan agreed to declare a naval holiday for ten years, during which they promised not to build any warships of any kind. Great Britain, the United States, and Japan agreed to maintain a ratio of relative strength of five-five-three. The so-called four-power treaty pledged the United States, the British Empire, France, and Japan to respect one another's island possessions in the Pacific. Another treaty bound the powers represented at Washington not to interfere in China by seeking special rights and privileges. Moreover, the alliance between Japan and the British, which had been a matter of worry to the government of the United States, was terminated.

1071. Efforts to prevent War. A very important question which has occupied European governments since the Peace Conference is how to avoid future wars. The League of Nations has found the problem of the reduction of armies and navies a puzzling one, for nations are afraid they will not be safe from attack if they give up what seems to them their only means of protection. They demand some guaranty of security before they can do away with their costly military equipment. This difficulty has led to the discussion of other plans for maintaining peace, such as compulsory arbitration and the outlawing of war by which *aggressive* war is declared a crime and the members of the League promise to come to the aid of the attacked. An *aggressor* is one who goes to war refusing the alternatives of arbitration and the decisions of the Council of the League.

1072. The Locarno Treaties. One of the most promising moves toward peace was the conference for the discussion of the great question of security, between the representatives of France, Germany, Belgium, Great Britain, Italy, Poland, and Czechoslovakia, held at Locarno in October, 1925. Seven treaties were signed as a result of this conference. In the most important —the so-called Security Pact—Germany and France and Germany and Belgium agreed to keep the boundaries fixed by the Treaty of Versailles and not to attack, invade, or go to war with one another, but to settle their future difficulties by the peace-

ful method of arbitration. For the first time since the war Germany became a party to an international movement for peace and was received on a friendly footing with the other nations in a common enterprise. In case of a violation of this treaty the signers of the pact agree to go to the aid of the country attacked. Germany signed additional arbitration treaties with Belgium, France, Poland, and Czechoslovakia. These agreements provided that serious disputes should be submitted to an arbitral tribunal or to the Permanent Court of International Justice, and that the decision should be accepted. Two further treaties were made between France and Poland and between France and Czechoslovakia, who agreed to aid one another if, in case of a violation of the Security Pact, they should be attacked by Germany. The Locarno treaties are regarded as marking a great advance in international understanding and good will by replacing the old-time secret treaties, made to maintain a "balance of power," with open agreements to preserve peace.

1073. Coöperation of the United States. The good work of the League tended gradually to promote peace in Europe, and the pacification of Europe on the other hand strengthened the League. While the United States remained outside, it coöperated more and more with the League in international conferences and in movements which seemed likely to forward the cause of peace. It was because of the United States that a disarmament conference was called at Geneva in 1927 to consider the further reduction of cruisers. Representatives of the United States, Great Britain, and Japan attended, but no conclusions were reached since Great Britain contended that she needed many cruisers to protect her lines of ocean trade.

1074. The Pact of Paris, called the "Kellogg Treaty." Realizing that there was strong support for peace measures in the United States, Monsieur Briand, on the tenth anniversary of the entry of the United States into the war (April, 1927), proposed that the friendship between France and the United States be made perpetual by a treaty outlawing war between the two

countries. This was followed by an official proposal from the French government. In his reply Secretary Kellogg suggested that the two governments might make an important contribution to world peace by securing, if possible, the adherence of all the principal powers of the world to a declaration renouncing war. As a result, on August 27, 1928, the representatives of fifteen nations met at Paris and pledged themselves "to renounce war as an instrument of national policy" and to seek the settlement of future dispute with one another only by peaceful means. The treaty is to be left open indefinitely, so that other nations may have an opportunity to sign if they so desire.

1075. The East and the West confer. While the Geneva Conference was in session another consultation was being held on the opposite side of the globe to consider the grave question of the relations of the countries bordering upon the mighty Pacific Ocean. The struggles in China have been mentioned previously (§ 870). Both Great Britain and the United States had found it difficult to relinquish the protection of their interests there. Accordingly an unofficial body of experts met at Honolulu in the summer of 1927 to consider the relations of China, Japan, Australia, New Zealand, the United States, and the European countries. An Institute of Pacific Relations was organized, which provided for conferences every two years. It would seem that such conferences, not unlike those of the League of Nations, may prove much more effective than meetings of diplomats in properly studying complicated international situations and working for mutual understandings upon which the peace of the world so largely depends.

1076. Intervention of the United States in Nicaragua. When the United States was considering the construction of the Panama Canal there was much discussion as to whether it would not be better to have the new waterway pass through Nicaragua, where the barriers between the Atlantic and Pacific are by no means insuperable. With a view to the possibility of a second canal the Bryan-Chamorro treaty was concluded in 1916 granting the United States exclusive rights should it de-

sire in the future to undertake the enterprise. Nicaragua received three million dollars to apply on its public debt.

In 1926 civil war broke out in Nicaragua, and American lumber dealers, fruit-growers, and mining interests began to urge the United States to send warships to protect their property. President Diaz admitted in January, 1927, that he could not guarantee protection himself. Colonel Stimson was sent in April by President Coolidge to make an investigation. Both parties in Nicaragua agreed to place their arms in the hands of American authorities in order that a fair election might be held, free from violence. Sandino, a leader of a few hundred so-called "bandits," refused to agree to this, and for several months engagements occurred between Sandino's bands and the American marines. The election was held in an orderly fashion, and General Moncado was chosen president.

1077. President Hoover's Visit to Latin America. Shortly after Mr. Hoover was elected president in November, 1928, he visited the states of Central and South America with a view to encouraging a good understanding between the two continents. He was most cordially received in Nicaragua and told by its president that his people owed much to the intervention of the United States. As Mr. Hoover proceeded around South America, he was everywhere treated with the greatest distinction. Since the World War interrupted commerce between Latin America and Europe, the trade between North and South America has greatly increased. Vast loans have been raised in the United State by South American governments, and much capital is being sent from the North to develop the vast natural resources of the southern continent.

1078. Conditions in Mexico. Before his retirement President Coolidge expressed his belief that in spite of certain laws passed in Mexico limiting the landholding of foreigners and the control by them of oil wells and mines, the relations with the United States were steadily improving. The credit for this was given especially to Mr. Dwight Morrow, the United States ambassador to Mexico. The presidents of Mexico show a desire

to keep order and improve the condition of their country. A rebellion in the early part of 1929 quickly collapsed.

1079. International Aviation. The airplane, which developed rapidly during the World War, became later an instrument of peaceful international adventure. In 1919 the first nonstop flight across the Atlantic was made from Newfoundland to Ireland by English aviators, and a United States navy plane also crossed the Atlantic, by way of the Azores. Five years later a squadron of army planes circled the earth and were everywhere received with friendly enthusiasm. In May, 1926, Commander Richard E. Byrd of the United States navy flew from Spitzbergen, Norway, around the north pole and back in a single long arctic day. Then an Italian-built dirigible, under the direction of the distinguished Norwegian arctic-explorer, Roald Amundsen, flew from Spitzbergen across the pole to Alaska. In May, 1927, Charles A. Lindbergh created incredible international excitement by flying alone from New York to Paris, where the United States representatives presented him to the French nation as an "ambassador without a portfolio." Captain Lindbergh's daring feat brought him not only great glory in Europe and his own country but stimulated a great number of similar enterprises. In the summer of 1928 an elaborately equipped expedition of scientists and explorers under the direction of Commander Byrd set out for the Antarctic for the purpose of gaining as much knowledge as possible of the almost inaccessible region around the south pole. The party expected to be gone about two years. One of the most striking features of this voyage of discovery is that by means of the radio the people of the United States have been able to keep in touch with the Byrd expedition and to receive and send messages to the men thousands of miles away.

1080. Settlement of the Roman Question. Another contribution to general peace and good feeling in Europe was made early in 1929 when the long-standing differences between the Pope and the Italian government were adjusted. It will be recalled that in 1870 the new Italian government forcibly took posses-

sion of Rome and made it the capital of the new kingdom, under the House of Savoy. Although the Parliament in 1871 passed a "Law of Papal Guarantees" according the Pope sovereign rights over the Vatican and Lateran buildings and certain villas, and an annual payment for the loss of his possessions, the Pope refused to recognize the right of the government to make any settlement in regard to the property which had belonged to the popes for a thousand years. The law, he argued, was but a ruling of the Italian government and not an international arrangement, as it should be, between two sovereign powers. He therefore condemned the law, and since that time the popes have regarded themselves as "prisoners" of the State. The situation proved very embarrassing both to the government and to loyal Catholics, who owed allegiance both to the government and to the Church.

On February 11, 1929, after nearly sixty years, an agreement was reached on the so-called Roman question. Cardinal Gasparri and Premier Mussolini, on behalf of the Pope and the king of Italy, signed a series of documents settling their disagreements and restoring friendly relations between the Church and the State.

The first document is an International Treaty recognizing the independence of the Pope and his position as a European sovereign over his territory. This consists of a few acres of land, including St. Peters, the Vatican, and adjoining estates, to be known as the Vatican City. By this treaty the Pope restricts himself to this territory and relinquishes his former claims to Rome.

The second document is a Concordat, or agreement, in regard to the relationship of the Church and government in Italy. The Roman Catholic religion is acknowledged as the religion of the State, and religious education is introduced into elementary schools under the direction of the Church.

The third document has to do with the financial arrangements agreed upon as an indemnity for the loss of the papal possessions.

1081. The Difficult Question of Reparations. While Germany faithfully met her obligations under the Dawes Plan (§ 1034), her financiers claimed that these payments were economically unsound since Germany was able to make them only by borrowing. Her budget, they said, showed a deficit, and her debt to foreign nations was continually increasing. Late in 1928 she requested that the Reparations Commission make another effort to settle the amount of her war debt and suggest possible arrangements for annual payment. She specially urged that the decision should be based on a study of what Germany was able to pay. In February, 1929, a committee of financial experts from the allied powers met in Paris to work out this difficult problem with representatives from Germany. Owen Young, who with J. P. Morgan represented the United States, was made chairman of the committee.

1082. Agreement of 1929 in Regard to Reparations. At one time it seemed as if the conference would end in failure. Although the allies set a figure far below that of their original claim of what Germany owed, Dr. Schacht, the head of the German delegation, maintained that the sum was still beyond what Germany could pay. He then made an offer which the allies rejected as insufficient. Mr. Young however refused to permit a deadlock and continued to work on the problem. Early in June, after nearly four months of work an agreement was reached by which the total debt of Germany to the allies was fixed at about nine billion dollars. This represents a substantial reduction from the sum of thirty-three billion dollars set in 1921 (§ 1034). By the new plan Germany is to pay an average of $492,000,000 for thirty-seven years and a slightly smaller sum for twenty-one years longer. The arrangements of this plan are substituted for those of the Dawes plan now in operation. A Bank for International Payments is to be established to take the place of the Reparations Commission and the Agent General for Reparations, to receive payments made by Germany and to take care of all financial matters connected with the carrying out of the plan.

V. Conclusion

1083. All histories which come down to the present day must leave things at loose ends, for that is the nature of mankind's experience. History is never finished, but flows on, like a river, into ever-new landscapes. We can none of us tell what is coming, especially in the age in which we live, when all things are changing more rapidly than ever before in the history of the human race. What seems to us very important today may be eclipsed by some new and unexpected event tomorrow, just as in our own personal life; and what we have overlooked in the past may suddenly turn out to be very significant. So what may be called the perspective of history is constantly changing. As we get new outlooks the past alters or takes on a fresh meaning.

The aim of this book is to enable the reader to follow the river as it pursues its course. We can do little to direct it, but we can at least come to see that there are many evil things in the past which may be overcome, and many promises for the future which we can do something to bring to fruition.

QUESTIONS

I. Give examples of how new discoveries and inventions raise new problems. What are some of the chief social questions of our day? Contrast the older reformers with those of recent times. Distinguish between the various kinds of socialists.

II. Mention some of the European countries that have had to draw up new constitutions. What are some of the chief characteristics of the new constitutions? What is meant by proportional representation? How did the Labor party come into power in Great Britain? What were its aims? Give some account of Ramsay MacDonald's cabinet.

III. What are the aims of the Bolsheviki? Give some of the provisions of the Russian constitution. What are the soviets? What is the Third International?

IV. What has the League of Nations accomplished? What is the purpose of the World Court? What are the Locarno treaties? What is the importance of the Pact of Paris? Give some account of the progress of aviation. What have been the recent relations of the United States to Nicaragua? How was the Roman question settled?

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Present. BENJAMIN, *Story of Persia* (Story of the Nations Series). MEYER, "Persia," in *Encyclopædia Britannica.* BREASTED, *Ancient Times*, chaps. vi–viii. HALL, *The Ancient History of the Near East*, chaps. ix, xii.

Source Material. The Old Testament in the Revised Version. MOORE, G. F., *The Literature of the Old Testament.* BOTSFORD, *A Source Book of Ancient History.* The *Avesta* will be found in the series called Sacred Books of the East.

Ægean Civilization and the Greeks to the Close of the Persian Wars. BOTSFORD, *Hellenic History.* WESTERMANN, *Ancient Nations.* GOODSPEED, *Ancient World.* BREASTED, *Ancient Times*, chaps. viii–xviii. REINACH, *Story of Art.* GLASGOW, *The Minoans.* HAWES, *Crete, the Forerunner of Greece.* HOGARTH, *The Ancient East.* HALL, *Ancient History of the Near East.* ZIMMERN, *Greek Commonwealth* (second edition). CAPPS, *Homer to Theocritus.* KELLER, *Homeric Life.* SANDYS, Articles in *Cambridge Companion to Greek Studies.* GRUNDY, *Great Persian War.*

Source Material and Maps. BOTSFORD, *Source Book of Ancient History.* THALLON, *Readings in Greek History.* BOTSFORD and SIHLER, *Hellenic Civilization. Herodotus.*

The Greatness of the Greeks. SEIGNOBOS, *Ancient Civilization.* GRANT, *Greece in the Age of Pericles.* ZIMMERN, *Greek Commonwealth.* SANDYS, *Companion to Greek Studies.* TARBELL, *History of Greek Art.* MUNROE, *History of Education.* FERGUSON, *Greek Imperialism.* MURRAY, GILBERT, *Euripides and his Age.* MAHAFFY, *Social Life in Greece.* VAN HOOK, *Greek Life and Thought.*

Source Material. BOTSFORD and SIHLER, *Hellenic Civilization.* FLING, *Source Book of Greek History. Herodotus* (especially Bk. VII). *Plutarch's Lives of Theseus, Solon, Aristides, Themistocles, Pausanias, Cimon, Lycurgus, Alcibiades, Nicias. Æschylus' Persians. Thucydides* (JOWETT), *Xenophon's Anabasis* and *Economics* (DAKYN). *Plato's Apology.* Selections from *Euripides* in APPLETON, *Greek Poets*, and in GOLDWIN SMITH, *Specimens of Greek Tragedy. Aristophanes' Acharnians* and *Birds* (FRERE in Everyman's).

Spread of Greek Civilization: the Hellenistic Age. BOTSFORD, *Hellenic History.* WESTERMANN, *Ancient Nations*, chaps. xix–xxii. GOODSPEED, *Ancient World.* BREASTED, *Ancient Times*, chaps. xix–xxi. HOGARTH, *Ancient East*, pp. 186–251. FERGUSON, *Greek Imperialism.* CAPPS, *Homer to Theocritus.* WHEELER, *Alexander.* GARDNER, *New Chapters in Greek History*, chap. xv. SHUCKBURGH, *Greek History.* MAHAFFY, *Greek Life and Thought*, chaps. i–xvi; *Alexander's Empire*, chaps. xiv, xx, and xxiii. TUCKER, *Life in Ancient Athens*, chap. ix. TARBELL, *Greek Art*, chap. x.

Source Material. BOTSFORD and SIHLER, *Hellenic Civilization.* BOTSFORD, *Source Book*, chaps. xxiv–xxvii. *Plutarch's Lives of Demosthenes, Phocion, Alexander. Demosthenes' Crown* and *Third Philippic.* THALLON, *Readings*, chap. xv. FLING, *Source Book. Polybius' Histories* (SHUCKBURGH).

The Roman Republic to the Time of Augustus. BOTSFORD, *History of Rome*, chaps. i–viii. WESTERMANN, *Ancient Nations*, chaps. xxiii–xxxiv. GOODSPEED, *Ancient World*. BREASTED, *Ancient Times*, chaps. xxii–xxvi. FOWLER, *Rome*. MOSSO, *Dawn of Civilization*. JONES, *Companion to Roman History*. HEITLAND, *Short History of the Roman Republic*. ABBOTT, *Roman Political Institutions*. FRANK, *Roman Imperialism*. GREENIDGE, *Roman Public Life*. SMITH, *Carthage and the Carthaginians*. MORRIS, *Hannibal*. DUFF, *Literary History of Rome*. FOWLER, *Cæsar*. STRACHAN-DAVIDSON, *Cicero*.

Source Material. BOTSFORD, *Story of Rome* and *Source Book*. MUNRO, *Source Book*. *Plutarch's Lives of Romulus, Numa, Pyrrhus, Camillus*. DAVIS, *Source Readings*, Vol. III. *Cæsar's Gallic War*. *Sallust's Jugurthine War*.

The Roman Empire and its Decline. BOTSFORD, *History of Rome*. WESTERMANN, *Ancient Nations*. BREASTED, *Ancient Times*, chaps. xxvii–xxix. FOWLER, *Rome*. CAPES, *Early Empire*. JONES, *Roman Empire*. ABBOTT, *Roman Political Institutions*, chap. xii. DAVIS, *Influence of Wealth in Imperial Rome*. FIRTH, *Augustus*. FOWLER, *History of Roman Literature*, Bk. II. DUFF, *Literary History of Rome*. MACKAIL, *Latin Literature*, Bk. II. TUCKER, *Life in the Roman World*. ARNOLD, *Roman Provincial Administration*. REINACH, *Story of Art*, pp. 75–83. PELLISON, *Roman Life in Pliny's Time*. MAU and KELSEY, *Pompeii*. TUCKER, *Roman Life*, chaps. i–iii, xix–xxi. CUMONT, *Oriental Religions in Roman Paganism*. GLOVER, *Conflict of Religions in the Roman Empire*. OMAN, *Byzantine Empire*. FIRTH, *Constantine*. DILL, *Roman Society in the Last Century of the Roman Empire*. SIHLER, *From Augustus to Augustine*.

Source Material. BOTSFORD, *Story of Rome* and *Source Book*. MUNRO, *Source Book*. DAVIS, *Source Readings*. LAING, *Masterpieces of Latin Literature* (selections). *The Deeds of Augustus* (Fairley's translation in *Translations and Reprints*, University of Pennsylvania, Vol. V, No. 1). *Suetonius' Lives of the Cæsars* (selections). *Tacitus' Annals*, XV, 38–45, 60–65. *Letters of Pliny* (FIRTH). *New Testament* (The Acts of the Apostles). ROBINSON, *Readings in European History*, Vol. I, pp. 14–27. *The Notitia Dignitatum* (*Translations and Reprints*, University of Pennsylvania).

BOOK II. CIVILIZATION OF THE MIDDLE AGES

The Barbarian Invasions. The best short accounts of the barbarian invasions are EMERTON, *Introduction to the Middle Ages*, chaps. i–vii, and THORNDIKE, *History of Medieval Europe*, chaps. iii and v. MUNRO, D. C., *The Middle Ages*. ADAMS, G. B., *Civilization during the Middle Ages*, chaps. i, ii, iv, and v. FOORD, E. A., *The Byzantine Empire*. SERGEANT, *The Franks*. Every historical student should gain some acquaintance with the celebrated historian GIBBON. Although his *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* was written about a century and a half ago, it is still of great interest, and is incomparable in its style.

The best edition is published by The Macmillan Company. *The Cambridge Mediæval History*, by various writers, devotes its first volume to the period in question.

The textbook and the collateral reading should always be supplemented by examples of contemporaneous material. ROBINSON, *Readings in European History*, Vol. I (from the barbarian invasions to the opening of the sixteenth century) and Vol. II (from the opening of the sixteenth century to the early twentieth century), will be found especially useful in furnishing extracts which reënforce the narrative together with extensive bibliographies and topical references.

For extracts relating to the barbarian invasions, see ROBINSON, *Readings*, Vol. I, pp. 28–55; OGG, *A Source Book of Mediæval History*, chaps. i–iv. Much more extensive are the extracts given in HAYES, C. H., *An Introduction to the Sources relating to the Germanic Invasions*, 1909 (Columbia University Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law, Vol. XXXIII, No. 3). See also THATCHER and MCNEAL, *A Source Book for Mediæval History*.

Constant use should be made of good historical atlases. By far the best and most convenient for the high school is SHEPHERD, WM. R., *Historical Atlas*, 1911 (see maps 43, 45, 48, 50–52). DOW, EARL E., *Atlas of European History*, 1907, also furnishes clear maps of the chief changes.

An admirable syllabus, guide, and exhaustive bibliography for the study of the Middle Ages may be found in PAETOW, *A Guide to the Study of Mediæval History*, 1917.

Mohammed and his Followers. GILMAN, *The Saracens*. GIBBON has a famous chapter on Mohammed and another on the conquests of the Arabs. These are the fiftieth and fifty-first of his great work. *Cambridge Mediæval History*, Vol. II, chaps. x–xii. MUIR, *Life of Mohammed*. AMEER ALI, *The Life and Teachings of Mohammed*, *A Short History of the Saracens*, by one who sympathizes with them. It is not hard to find a copy of one of the English translations of the Koran. See brief extracts in ROBINSON, *Readings*, and in OGG, *Source Book of Mediæval History*, pp. 97 ff. LANÉ-POOLE, STANLEY, *Speeches and Table Talk of Mohammed*, very interesting.

The Work of the Christian Church: the Monks. THORNDIKE, *History of Mediæval Europe*, chaps. vi, ix–x. FLICK, *The Rise of the Mediæval Church*. WALKER, *The History of the Christian Church*. Church histories are usually written by either Catholics or Protestants, who naturally differ in their interpretation of events. One may refer to FISHER, *History of the Christian Church* (Protestant), or to ALZOG, *Manual of Universal Church History* (Catholic). MILMAN, *History of Latin Christianity*. *Cambridge Mediæval History*, Vol. I, chaps. iv, vi. NEWMAN, *Manual of Church History*, Vol. I (Protestant). WORKMAN, *Evolution of the Monastic Ideal*. TAYLOR, HENRY O., *Classical Heritage of the Middle Ages*, the admirable chapter on monasticism. HARNACK, *Monasticism*. *Cambridge Mediæval History*, Vol. II, chap. xvi.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, Vol. I, pp. 14–27, and chaps. iv–v. Much fuller, AYER, J. C., *A Source Book of Ancient Church History* and *Life of St. Columban* in *Translations and Reprints*, University of Pennsylvania, Vol. II, No. 7.

The chief portions of the Benedictine Rule in HENDERSON, E. F., *Select Historical Documents of the Middle Ages*, and in THATCHER and MCNEAL, *A Source Book for Mediæval History*. Translation, by BREHAUT, of GREGORY OF TOURS, *History of the Franks*. See map, pp. 46–47, in SHEPHERD, *Historical Atlas*, showing spread of Christianity in Europe.

The Age of Disorder: Feudalism. EMERTON, *Introduction to the Middle Ages*, chaps. xii–xv. THORNDIKE, *History of Medieval Europe*, chaps. xi–xiv. BRYCE, *Holy Roman Empire*, chaps. iv–v. HENDERSON, *History of Germany in the Middle Ages*, chaps. iv–v. ADAMS, G. B., *Civilization during the Middle Ages*. HODGKIN, *Charles the Great* (a small volume). *Cambridge Mediæval History*, Vol. II, chaps. xviii–xx.

SEIGNOBOS, *Feudal Régime* (excellent). See "Feudalism," in *Encyclopædia Britannica*. INGRAM, *History of Slavery and Serfdom*. CHEYNEY, *Industrial and Social History of England*. MUNRO and SELLERY, *Mediæval Civilization*, pp. 159–212. *Cambridge Mediæval History*, Vol. III. HASKINS, C. H., *The Normans in European History*.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chaps. vii–ix. OGG, *Source Book of Mediæval History*, chap. x. THATCHER and MCNEAL, *A Source Book for Mediæval History*, pp. 341–417.

Popes and Emperors: The Medieval Church and the Crusades. EMERTON, *Mediæval Europe*. HENDERSON, E. F., *History of Germany in the Middle Ages*. THORNDIKE, *History of Medieval Europe*, chap. xv. BRYCE, *Holy Roman Empire*, chaps. viii–xi.

The works of Flick and Walker referred to above are useful brief treatments. Special topics can be looked up in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, the *Catholic Encyclopædia*, or any other good encyclopedia. CUTTS, *Parish Priests and their People*. LEA, H. C., *A History of the Inquisition of the Middle Ages*, containing chapters upon the origin of both the Franciscan and Dominican orders. For St. Francis the best work is SABATIER, *St. Francis of Assisi*. See also GASQUET, *English Monastic Life*; JESSOPP, *The Coming of the Friars, and Other Historic Essays*; CREIGHTON, *History of the Papacy*, introductory chapter. ARCHER and KINGSFORD, *The Crusades*. GIBBON, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, chaps. lviii–lix. KREY, A. C., *The First Crusade*. See "Crusades," in *Encyclopædia Britannica* (11th ed.).

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, Vol. I, chaps. xii–xiv, xvi, xvii, xxi, xxv. THATCHER and MCNEAL, *A Source Book for Mediæval History*. Excellent maps for the period will be found in SHEPHERD, *Historical Atlas*. *Translations and Reprints*, University of Pennsylvania, Vol. I, Nos. 2, 4, and Vol. III, No. 1.

England and France in the Middle Ages. There are a number of convenient general histories of England during the Middle Ages which can be used to supplement the short account here given: CHEYNEY, *Short History of England*; GREEN, *Short History of the English People*; CROSS, A. L., *A History of England and Greater Britain*, chaps. iv–xviii. For France, ADAMS, G. B., *Growth of the French Nation*; DURUY, *History of France*; and a more recent treatment by DAVIS, W. S., *The History of France*; HASKINS, C. H., *The Normans in European History*.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chaps. xi, xx. There are several source books of English history: CHEYNEY, *Readings in English History*, chaps. iv–xii; COLBY, *Selections from the Sources of English History*; LEE, *Source Book of English History*; COULTER, G. G., *A Mediæval Garner* (a collection of selections from the literary sources) and *Social Life in Britain from the Conquest to the Reformation*.

Life in the Middle Ages. DAVIS, W. S., *Life in a Mediæval Barony*, *A Picture of a Typical Feudal Community*. EMERTON, *Mediæval Europe*, chap. xv. DAVIS, *Medieval Europe*, chap. ix. THORNDIKE, *History of Medieval Europe*, chaps. xvii–xix, xxxi–xxxii. HULME, *Renaissance and Reformation*. EMERTON, *The Beginnings of Modern Europe*, chaps. iv–v, ix–x.

GIBBINS, *History of Commerce*, the best short account, with good maps. CUNNINGHAM, *Western Civilization in its Economic Aspects*, Vol. II. CHEYNEY, *Industrial and Social History of England*. GIBBINS, *Industrial History of England*. DAY, C., *History of Commerce*. LUCHAIRE, *Social Life in the Time of Philip Augustus*. HAMLIN, *History of Architecture* (good introduction).

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, Vol. I, chap. xviii. OGG, *A Source Book of Mediæval History*, chap. xx. THATCHER and MCNEAL, *A Source Book for Mediæval History*; Section X, pp. 545–612, gives many interesting documents. Marco Polo's account of his travels is easily had in English. The best edition of *Travels of Sir John Mandeville* is that published by The Macmillan Company.

Medieval Books and Science. EMERTON, *Mediæval Europe*, chap. xiii. THORNDIKE, *History of Medieval Europe*, chaps. xx–xxii. MUNRO and SELLERY, *Mediæval Civilization*, pp. 277–357, 458–490. HULME, *Renaissance and Reformation*. RASHDALL, *History of the Universities in the Middle Ages*. HASKINS, C. H., *The Rise of the Universities*.

The best treatment of medieval intellectual history is TAYLOR, H. O., *The Mediæval Mind* (2 vols.). SAINTSBURY, *Flourishing of Romance*, a good introduction to medieval literature. WALSH, *The Thirteenth, the Greatest of Centuries* (rather too enthusiastic in its claims). SMITH, JUSTIN H., *The Troubadours at Home*. CORNISH, *Chivalry*.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, Vol. I, chap. xix. STEELE, *Mediæval Lore*, extracts from an encyclopedia of the thirteenth century. The *Song*

of Roland is translated into spirited English verse by O'Hagan. The reader will find a beautiful example of a French romance of the twelfth century in an English translation of *Aucassin and Nicolette*. Mr. Steele gives charming stories of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries in *Huon of Bordeaux*, *Renaud of Montauban*, and *The Story of Alexander*. MALORY, *Morte d'Arthur*, a collection of the stories of the Round Table made in the fifteenth century for English readers, and the best place to turn for these famous stories.

BOOK III. BEGINNINGS OF OUR MODERN WORLD

The Renaissance. SYMONDS, *Age of Despots*. DE VINNE, *Invention of Printing*. PUTNAM, *Books and their Makers during the Middle Ages*. BURCKHARDT, *The Civilization of the Renaissance in Italy*. VAN DYCK, *The History of Painting*.

Source Material. ROBINSON and ROLFE, *Petrarch* (new enlarged edition, 1914), a collection of his most interesting letters. WHITCOMB, *Literary Source Book of the Italian Renaissance*. COULTER, *Mediæval Garner*.

Europe at the Opening of the Sixteenth Century. HAYES, C. J. H., *Political and Social History of Modern Europe*, Vol. I, chaps. i, iii (excellent brief account). JOHNSON, *Europe in the Sixteenth Century*, chaps. i–ii. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. I, chaps. iv, xi. See "Charles V," in *Encyclopædia Britannica*. DURUY, *History of France*, Ninth and Tenth Periods.

Cambridge Modern History, Vol. II, chap. ii. DYER and HASSALL, *Modern Europe* (a political history of Europe in 6 vols.), Vol. I. CREIGHTON, *History of the Papacy*. PASTOR, *History of the Popes*, Vol. V. BRYCE, *Holy Roman Empire*, chap. xiv.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, Vol. II, chap. xxiii.

The Protestant Revolt. SMITH, PRESERVED, *Age of the Reformation* (excellent for this period). HAYES, *Modern Europe*, Vol. I. LINDSAY, *History of the Reformation*. See "Reformation," *Encyclopædia Britannica*, by ROBINSON, J. H.

MCGIFFERT, *Martin Luther*. BEARD, *Martin Luther*, especially the introductory chapters on general conditions. CREIGHTON, *History of the Papacy*, Vol. VI. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. I, chaps. ix, xix, and Vol. II, chaps. iv–viii. JANSSEN, *History of the German People*, Vols. I–II. EMERTON, *Desiderius Erasmus* (very interesting). SMITH, PRESERVED, *Erasmus* and *The Life and Letters of Martin Luther*. BÖHMER, *Luther in the Light of Recent Research*.

Chapters on the changes under Henry VIII and Edward VI will be found in all general histories of England; for example, POLLARD, A. F., *History of England* (Home University Library), chap. iv; CHEYNEY, *Short History of England*, chap. xii; CROSS, *A History of England*, chaps. xx–xxii; GREEN, *Short History of the English People*, chaps. vi–vii.

Cambridge Modern History, Vol. II, chaps. x–xi, xiii–xv. GASQUET, *The Eve of the Reformation*. POLLARD, *Henry VIII*; and *History of England from the Accession of Edward VI to the Death of Elizabeth*.

Source Material. Robinson, *Readings*, Vol. I, chap. xxi, and Vol. II, chaps. xxiv–xxvi. Wace and Buchheim (Eds.), *Luther's Primary Works* and *The Augsburg Confession*. Whitcomb, *Source Book of the German Renaissance*. Hazlitt, *Luther's Table Talk*. Smith, Preserved, *Luther's Correspondence and Other Contemporary Letters*. Gee and Hardy, *Documents Illustrative of English Church History*, pp. 145 ff. (very useful and full). Cheyney, *Readings in English History*, chap. xii.

The Wars of Religion. Hayes, *Modern Europe*, Vol. I, chaps. v–vi. Einstein, L., *Tudor Ideals*. The portion of the chapter dealing with English affairs can be supplemented by general histories of England: Cheyney, Cross, Green, Gardiner, etc.

Cambridge Modern History, Vol. II, chaps. ix, xvi, xviii–xix; Vol. III, chaps. i, vi–x, xv, xx; Vol. IV, chaps. i, iii–vi, xiii–xiv. Lindsay, *History of the Reformation*, Vol. II, Bk. III, chaps. iv–v, and Bk. VI. Putnam, Ruth, *William the Silent*. Payne, *Voyages of Elizabethan Seamen to America*, Vol. I. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch Republic*. Gindely, *History of the Thirty Years' War*.

Source Material. Robinson, *Readings*, Vol. II, chaps. xxviii, xxix. Cheyney, *Readings in English History*, chap. xiii.

England in the Seventeenth Century. Pollard, *History of England*, chap. v. Cheyney, *Short History of England*, chaps. xiv–xvi. Hayes, *Modern Europe*, Vol. I, chap. viii. Cross, *A History of England*, chaps. xxvii–xxxv. Green, *Short History of the English People*, chaps. viii–ix. Gardiner, *Students' History of England*, Pts. VI–VIII. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. III, chap. xvii; Vol. IV, chaps. viii–xi, xv, xix; Vol. V, chaps. v, ix–xi. Morley, *Oliver Cromwell*. Macaulay, *Essay on Milton*. Gardiner, *The First Two Stuarts and the Puritan Revolution*. Trevelyan, G. M., *England under the Stuarts*.

Source Material. Robinson, *Readings*, chap. xxx. Cheyney, *Readings in English History*, chaps. xiv–xvi. Lee, *Source Book of English History*, Pt. VI. Colby, *Selections from the Sources of English History*, Pt. VI, the Stuart Period. Gee and Hardy, *Documents Illustrative of English Church History*, pp. 508–664.

BOOK IV. THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

France under Louis XIV. Adams, *The Growth of the French Nation*, chaps. xii–xiii. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. V, chaps. i–ii, xiii–xiv. Duruy, *History of France*, Thirteenth Period. Wakeman, *The Ascendancy of France, 1598–1715*. Hassall, *Louis XIV and the Zenith of the French Monarchy* (Heroes of the Nations Series). Perkins, *France under the Regency* and *France under Louis XV*.

Source Material. Robinson, *Readings*, Vol. II, chap. xxxi, and Robinson and Beard, *Readings in Modern European History*, Vol. I, chaps. i–iii. This fuller collection of source material should be used from this point on. Bishop and Robinson, *Practical Map Exercises in Medieval and Modern European History*.

Central and Eastern Europe. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. V, chaps. xvi, xx–xxi; Vol. VI. RAMBAUD, *History of Russia*, Vols. I–II. BRIGHT, *Maria Theresa*. CARLYLE, *History of Frederick the Second, called Frederick the Great*. HASSALL, *The Balance of Power, 1715–1789*, a full account of diplomacy and wars. KLUCHEVSKY, *A History of Russia* (3 vols.). PHILLIPS, *Poland* (Home University Series). SCHEVILL, *The Making of Modern Germany*, Lectures I–II. SCHUYLER, *Peter the Great*, a standard English biography.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chap. xxxii, and ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings in Modern European History*, chaps. iv–v.

Rivalry of England and France in Foreign Lands. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. V, chap. xxii; Vol. VI, chaps. vi, xv. CHEYNEY, *A Short History of England*, chap. xvii. CROSS, *A History of England and Greater Britain*, chap. xli. EGERTON, *A Short History of British Colonial Policy*. GIBBINS, *British Commerce and Colonies from Elizabeth to Victoria*. LYALL, *The Rise of British Dominion in India*. WOODWARD, *A Short History of the Expansion of the British Empire*. CHEYNEY, *The European Background of American History* (an excellent survey). EDGAR, *The Struggle for a Continent*. HUNTER, *A Brief History of the Indian Peoples*. LUCAS, *A Historical Geography of the British Colonies* (5 vols.). MACAULAY, *Essay on Clive*. MAHAN, *The Influence of Sea Power upon History, 1660–1783*. MORRIS, *A History of Colonization* (2 vols.). PARKMAN, *A Half-Century of Conflict* (2 vols.). SEELEY, *The Expansion of England*. THWAITES, *The Colonies*. TRAILL, *Social England*, Vol. V.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chap. xxxiii. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings in Modern European History*, chaps. vi–vii.

The Old Order in Europe. ASHTON, *Social Life in the Reign of Queen Anne*. GIBBINS, *Industry in England*, chaps. xvii–xx. LOWELL, *The Eve of the French Revolution*. PROTHERO, *English Farming, Past and Present*, chaps. v–xi. SYDNEY, *England and the English in the Eighteenth Century* (2 vols.). CUNNINGHAM, *The Growth of English Industry and Commerce, Modern Times*, Pt. I. DE TOCQUEVILLE, *The State of Society in France before the Revolution*, a careful analysis of conditions. LECKY, *A History of England in the Eighteenth Century* (8 vols.). TAINE, *The Ancient Régime*.

Source Material. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chap. viii. *Translations and Reprints*, University of Pennsylvania, Vol. V, No. 2; Vol. VI, No. 1. YOUNG, *Travels in France, 1787–1789*, a first-hand source of great importance.

The Spirit of Reform. BURY, *A History of Freedom of Thought* (Home University Series), chap. vi (admirable). *A History of the Idea of Progress*, by the same. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. V, chap. xxiii. MARVIN, *The Living Past*, chap. viii. MONTESQUIEU, *The Spirit of Laws* (Nugent's translation). ROUSSEAU, *Discourses* and *Émile* and *The Social Contract* (Everyman's Library). SMITH, *The Wealth of Nations*. GIDE and RIST, *A History of Economic Doctrines* (translated by Richards). LECKY, *A History of the Rise and Influence*

of Rationalism in Europe (2 vols.). MORLEY, *Critical Miscellanies* and *Rousseau* and *Voltaire*, interesting essays.

Source Material. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chaps. ix–x.

BOOK V. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND NAPOLEON

The Old Régime in France. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. VIII, chaps. ii–iv. DE TOCQUEVILLE, *The State of Society in France before the Revolution of 1789*. ROCQUAIN, *The Revolutionary Spirit preceding the Revolution*. TAINE, *The Ancient Régime*.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chap. xxxiv. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chap. xi.

The French Revolution. ROBINSON, *The New History*, chap. vii. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. VIII, especially chaps. i–iii. MATTHEWS, *The French Revolution*, Pt. III. ROSE, *The Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era*, chaps. i–iii. STEPHENS, *A History of the French Revolution* (2 vols.). MADELIN, LOUIS, *The French Revolution*, perhaps the best account in one volume. AULARD, *The French Revolution : A Political History, 1789–1804* (4 vols.). BOURNE, *The Revolutionary Period in Europe*. CARLYLE, *The French Revolution*, a literary masterpiece but written from insufficient materials. TAINE, *The French Revolution* (3 vols.), brilliant but unsympathetic. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. VIII. MATTHEWS, *The French Revolution*.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chaps. xxxv–xxxvi. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chaps. xii–xiii. ANDERSON, *Constitutions and Other Select Documents Illustrative of the History of France, 1789–1907*, a valuable collection for modern French history. BURKE, *Reflections on the French Revolution* (Everyman's Library), a bitter criticism of the whole movement. PAINE, *The Rights of Man*, an answer to Burke.

Napoleon and Europe. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. VIII, chaps. xviii–xxv, and Vol. IX. FISHER, *Napoleon* (Home University Series). FOURNIER, *Napoleon the First* (excellent). JOHNSTON, *Napoleon*. ROSE, *The Life of Napoleon the First*.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chap. xxxviii. ROBINSON and BEARD, chaps. xiv–xv. ANDERSON, *Constitutions and Other Select Documents Illustrative of the History of France, 1789–1907*. BINGHAM, *A Selection from the Letters and Despatches of the First Napoleon* (3 vols.). LAS CASES, *The Journal of the Emperor Napoleon at St. Helena*. LECESTRE, *New Letters of Napoleon I*. DE RÉMUSAT, *Memoirs of Madame de Rémusat*. MIOT DE MELITO, *Memoirs of Miot de Melito*. BIGELOW, *A History of the German Struggle for Liberty*. SEELEY, *The Life and Times of Stein*, a study of Prussia under Stein. SLOANE, *Life of Napoleon Bonaparte*, Vols. III–IV. TAINE, *The Modern Régime* (2 vols.), a keen analysis of Napoleon.

BOOK VI. A CENTURY OF PROGRESS (1814–1914)

Europe after the Congress of Vienna. HAYES, *Modern Europe*. SCHAPIRO, *European History*. FYFFE, *History of Modern Europe* (in a single volume and a three-volume edition). HAZEN, *Europe since 1815*. SEIGNOBOS, *A Political History of Europe since 1814* (translation of a French work). FEUTER, *World History, 1815–1920* (translated by S. B. Fay). HUME, *Modern Spain*. STILLMAN, *The Union of Italy*. ROBERTSON, W. S. *History of the Latin-American Nations*.

Source Material. ROBINSON, *Readings*, chap. xxxix. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chaps. xvi and (Vol. II) xvii.

The Industrial Revolution. ALLSOPP, *An Introduction to English Industrial History*, Pt. IV, excellent book for young students. CHEYNEY, *An Introduction to the Industrial and Social History of England*. GIBBINS, *Industry in England*, chaps. xx–xxi. MARVIN, *The Living Past*, chaps. ix–x. POLLARD, *The History of England* (Home University Series), chap. vii. SLATER, *The Making of Modern England*. BYRN, *The Progress of Invention in the Nineteenth Century*. COCHRANE, *Modern Industrial Progress*. CUNNINGHAM, *The Growth of English Industry and Commerce: Modern Times*, Pt. II. HOBSON, *The Evolution of Modern Capitalism* (excellent). KIRKUP, *A History of Socialism*, well written and fair.

Source Material. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chap. xviii.

Revolutionary Europe — Italian and German Unity. In addition to the general histories cited above, there are the following special volumes: *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. XI. BARRY, *The Papacy and Modern Times* (Home University Series). CESARESCO, *Cavour and the Liberation of Italy*. STILLMAN, *The Union of Italy*. BISMARCK, *Bismarck, the Man and the Statesman*, an autobiography. BUSCH, *Bismarck, Some Secret Pages of his History*. HEADLAM, *Bismarck and the Foundation of the German Empire*. SCHEVILL, *The Making of Modern Germany*, Lectures I–V. SMITH, *Bismarck and German Unity*.

Source Material. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chaps. xix–xxii.

Germany. BARKER, *Modern Germany*. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. XII, chap. vi. HENDERSON, *A Short History of Germany*. GOOCH, G. P., *Germany*. HOWE, *Socialized Germany*. KRÜGER, *Government and Politics of the German Empire*. OGG, *The Governments of Europe*, chaps. ix–xiv. DAWSON, *The Evolution of Modern Germany*. HOWARD, *The German Empire*, chaps. i–xiii. TOWER, *Germany To-day* (Home University Series).

Source Material. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chap. xxiii.

France. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. XII, chap. v. HAZEN, *Europe since 1815*, chap. xv. MACY and GANNAWAY, *Comparative Free Government*, Pt. II, chaps. xlvi–xlix. BRACQ, *France under the Republic*. COUBERTIN, *The Evolution of France under the Third Republic*. HANOTAUX, *Contemporary*

France (3 vols.). LOWELL, *Governments and Parties in Continental Europe* (2 vols.). VIZETELLY, *Republican France*. The constitution of France is to be found in DODD, *Modern Constitutions*.

Source Material. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chap. xxiv.

Great Britain. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. XI, chaps. i, xii; Vol. XII, chaps. iii–iv. CHEYNEY, *A Short History of England*, chaps. xix–xx. CROSS, *A History of England and Greater Britain*, chaps. l–lv. MACY and GANNAWAY, *Comparative Free Government*, Pt. II, chaps. xxx–xli. OGG, *The Governments of Europe*, chaps. i–viii. OMAN, *England in the Nineteenth Century*. SLATER, *The Making of Modern England* (American edition), with select bibliography. BAGEHOT, *The English Constitution*. HUTCHINS and HARRISON, *A History of Factory Legislation*. LOWELL, *The Government of England* (2 vols.). SMITH, *Irish History and the Irish Question*. WEBB, *Problems of Modern Industry*. MONYPENNY and BUCKLE, *The Life of Benjamin Disraeli*. MORLEY, *The Life of William Ewart Gladstone*. TREVELYAN, *The Life of John Bright*.

Source Material. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chaps. xxv–xxvi. HAYES, *British Social Politics*, a collection of speeches by English statesmen on social reform. KENDALL, *A Source Book of English History*. LEE, *Source Book of English History*, Pt. VIII, chaps. xxx–xxxii.

The British Empire. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. XI, chap. xxvii; Vol. XII, chap. xx. ROBINSON, HOWARD, *The Development of the British Empire*. STORY, *The British Empire*. BURINOT, *Canada under British Rule*. EGERTON, *A Short History of British Colonial Policy*. FRASER, *British Rule in India*. HOBSON, *The War in South Africa*. INNES, *A History of England and the British Empire*, Vol. IV. JENKS, *A History of the Australasian Colonies*. LOWELL, *The Government of England*, Vol. II, chaps. liv–lviii.

Source Material. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chap. xxvii.

The Russian Empire. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. X, chap. xiii; Vol. XI, chap. xxi; Vol. XII, chap. xiii. SKRINE, *The Expansion of Russia*, the best brief survey. KENNAN, *Siberia and the Exile System* (2 vols.). KROPOTKIN, *Memoirs of a Revolutionist*. ALEXINSKY, *Modern Russia*. KRAUSSE, *Russia in Asia*. MAVOR, *An Economic History of Russia* (2 vols.), elaborate and excellent. RAMBAUD, *History of Russia*, Vol. III; *Expansion of Russia*. WALLACE, *Russia* (2 vols.), a readable and thorough survey. OLGIN, *The Soul of the Russian Revolution*.

Source Material. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chap. xxviii.

Turkey and the Near-Eastern Question. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. XII, chap. xiv. HAZEN, *Europe since 1815*. SEIGNOBOS, *A Political History of Europe since 1814*, chaps. xx–xxi. GIBBONS, *The New Map of Europe* (very readable). HOLLAND, *The European Concert in the Eastern Question*.

ABBOTT, *Turkey in Transition*. BUXTON, *Turkey in Revolution*. LANE-POOLE, *The Story of Turkey*. MILLER, *The Ottoman Empire* and *The Balkans*. ROSE, *The Development of the European Nations* (2 vols.), Vol. I. MILLER, WILLIAM, *A History of the Greek People*, a short work.

Source Material. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chap. xxix.

The Expansion of Europe. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. XII, chaps. xv–xxii. DOUGLAS, *Europe and the Far East* (excellent). HAZEN, *Europe since 1815*, chaps. xxiii, xxx. HOLDERNESS, *Peoples and Problems of India* (Home University Series). JOHNSTON, *The Opening up of Africa* (Home University Series). REINSCH, *World Politics*. ROSE, *The Development of the European Nations*. DENNIS, *Christian Missions and Social Progress*. GILES, *The Civilization of China* (Home University Series); *China and the Chinese*. HUNTER, *The Indian Empire*. KNOX, *Japanese Life in Town and Country*. HARRIS, *Intervention and Colonization in Africa*, a recent, reliable guide. KELTIE, *The Partition of Africa*. WEALE, *The Reshaping of the Far East* (2 vols.).

Source Material. ROBINSON and BEARD, *Readings*, chap. xxx.

Scientific Discoveries. BYRN, *Progress of Invention in the Nineteenth Century*. COCHRANE, *Modern Industrial Progress*. SLOSSON, *Creative Chemistry* and *Chats on Science*. CALDWELL and SLOSSON, *Science Remaking the World*. THOMPSON, *Age of Invention*. BOWMAN, *The New World*. THOMSON, J. A., *Everyday Biology*. CRESSY, *Discoveries and Inventions of the Twentieth Century*. RUSSELL, B., *The A B C of Atoms*. MILLS, JOHN, *Within the Atom*.

BOOK VII. THE WORLD WAR AND EUROPE TODAY

Diplomatic Negotiations preceding the War. For the conditions which led up to the World War see GOOCH, G. P., *History of Modern Europe*, and GIBBONS, *The New Map of Europe, 1911–1914*. The most complete work on this subject is FAY, S. B., *Origins of the World War*. BULLARD, *The Diplomacy of the Great War*. BEARD, C. A., *Cross Currents in Europe Today*. SEYMOUR, *The Diplomatic Background of the War*, 1916. LOREBURN, *How the War came*, a sober and thoughtful study made after the war closed.

Points of View on the War. ROSE, *The Origins of the War*, from an English standpoint. VON MACH, *Germany's Point of View*, an attempt to justify Germany's policy in America's eyes. HAYES, C. H., *Brief History of the War*.

Works on the War and on the Settlement at Paris. The American works on the war, in moderate compass, are MCMASTER, *The United States in the World War* (2 vols.) and BASSETT, *Our War with Germany*.

The following works deal with some of the deeper problems raised by the war: ROSE, *Nationality in Modern History*, 1916; BEER, *The English-Speaking Peoples, their Future Relations and Joint International Obligations*, 1917;

MUIR, RAMSAY, *The Expansion of Europe*, 1917; DEWEY, *German Philosophy and Politics*; LIPPMANN, *The Stakes of Diplomacy*, 1915; OLGIN, *The Soul of the Russian Revolution*, 1918; SMITH, MUNROE, *Militarism and Statecraft*, 1918; IRWIN, WILL, *The Next War, an Appeal to Common Sense*, an impressive account of the actual horrors and losses of the war, which everyone should realize.

Europe since the World War. GIBBONS, H. A., *Europe since 1918*. BEARD, C. A., *Cross Currents in Europe Today*, the best description of the chief results of the war. KEYNES, *The Economic Consequences of the Peace*. BLANSHARD, PAUL, *History of the Labor Movement*. MCBAIN and ROGERS, *New Constitutions of Europe*. GRAHAM and BINKLEY, *New Governments of Central Europe*. *The Rise of Ramsay MacDonald*, by Iconoclast. BUSTAMANTE, ANTONIO S. DE, *The World Court*. HUDSON, M. O., *The Permanent Court of International Justice and the Question of American Participation* (Harvard University Press). BUELL, *International Relations* (1925), good bibliographies. The three supplementary volumes of the *Encyclopædia Britannica* are very valuable for the war period and furnish bibliographies with each article. Also *These Eventful Years*, published by the same company, and the three volumes of the thirteenth edition of the *Encyclopædia* (1926) for a record of present-day achievement.

Latin America. ROBERTSON, WILLIAM S., *History of the Latin-American Nations* (revised ed., 1926); JAMES, H. G., and MARTIN, P. A., *The Republics of Latin America*; RIPPY, J. F., *Latin America in World Politics*, 1928; SWEET, W. W., *A History of Latin America* (revised ed., 1929).

Current History. *Current History*, published monthly by the New York Times Company, gives many important documents, admirable maps, and pictures dealing with present-day affairs. *The Statesman's Yearbook* gives an annual picture of the world's affairs. The *Political Science Quarterly* supplement, published annually, furnishes a summary of events for the year. *The Historical Outlook* (formerly *History Teachers' Magazine*) (Philadelphia) publishes excellent bibliographies. The Carnegie Endowment in New York publishes a valuable series in pamphlet form called *International Conciliation*, which contains important documents and reports. Publications of the League of Nations can be obtained through the World Peace Foundation. See the *League of Nations; A Survey, 1920–1925*, published by the Secretariat.

TABLES OF EUROPEAN RULERS

The kingship in western Europe was *hereditary* in certain families; that is, it was passed down from father to the eldest surviving son or nearest relative. Crowns were fought over by rival claimants just as private property might be. Many wars and territorial divisions are to be explained by family relationships. For this reason some attention must be devoted to tables of relationships such as are here given. Only a few of the most important are included, connected with famous struggles such as the wars between France and England, the building up of the Hapsburg realms, the War of the Spanish Succession, and the claims of Napoleon III to the throne of France.

TABLE I. THE ENGLISH KINGS FROM WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR TO EDWARD III

The table shows the basis of the claims of English kings to French lands.

William the Conqueror, king of England (1066–1087)

- William II (Rufus) (1087–1100)
- Henry I (1100–1135), m. Matilda, daughter of Malcolm, king of Scotland
  - Matilda (d. 1167), m. Geoffrey Plantagenet, count of Anjou
    - Henry II (1154–1189), the first Plantagenet king, m. Eleanor of Aquitaine
      - Richard (1189–1199)
      - Geoffrey (d. 1186)
        - Arthur
      - John (1199–1216)
        - Henry III (1216–1272)
          - Edward I (1272–1307)
            - Edward II (1307–1327)
              - Edward III (1327–1377)
- Adela, m. Stephen, count of Blois
  - Stephen (1135–1154)

TABLE II. DESCENT OF THE RIVAL HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK, AND THE BEGINNING OF THE TUDOR LINE OF KINGS

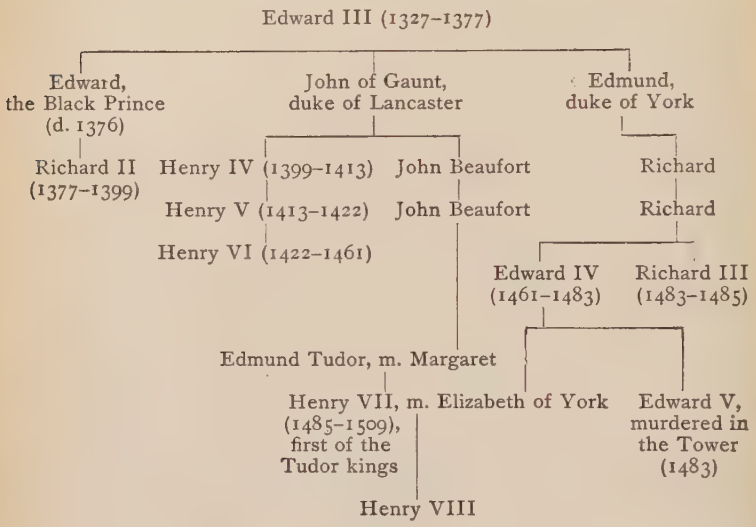


TABLE III. THE FRENCH KINGS FROM ST. LOUIS TO FRANCIS I

The table of early French kings shows a straight line of descent from Hugh Capet (987–996) through Philip Augustus (1180–1223), Louis VIII (1223–1226) to Louis IX, called St. Louis. The table below indicates the origin of the Valois and Bourbon lines (see Tables VII and XI).

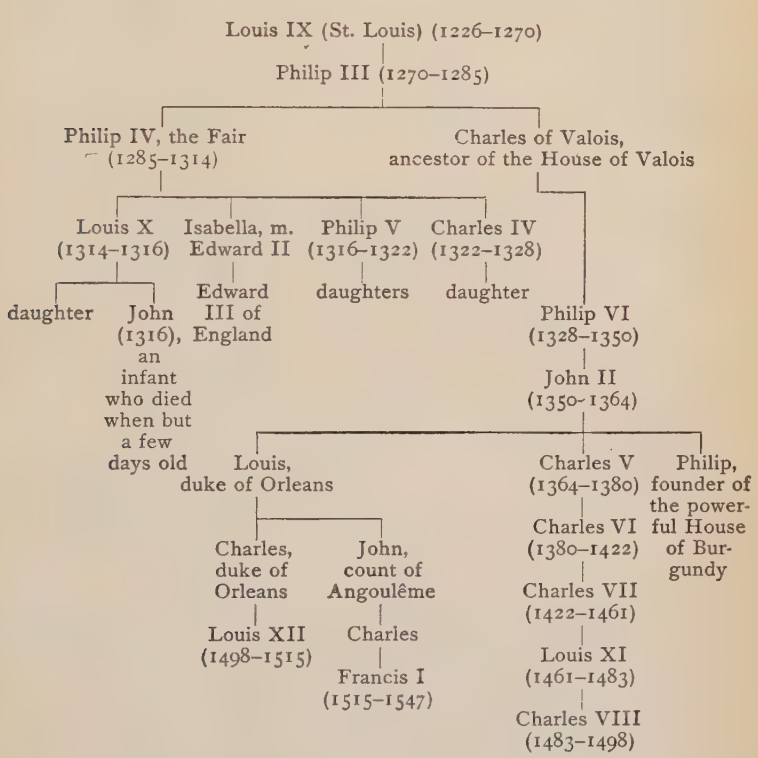


TABLE IV. THE HAPSBURG FAMILY IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

This table shows the origin of Hapsburg power.

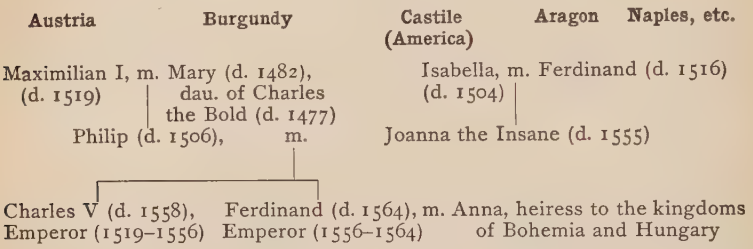

Austria
Burgundy
Castile (America)
Aragon
Naples, etc.
Maximilian I, (d. 1519), m. Mary (d. 1482), dau. of Charles the Bold (d. 1477)
Isabella, m. Ferdinand (d. 1516) (d. 1504)
Philip (d. 1506), m.
Joanna the Insane (d. 1555)
Charles V (d. 1558), Emperor (1519–1556)
Ferdinand (d. 1564), m. Anna, heiress to the kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary
Emperor (1556–1564)

TABLE V. THE TUDOR SOVEREIGNS OF ENGLAND

The table shows also their relations to the Stuarts (see Table VIII).

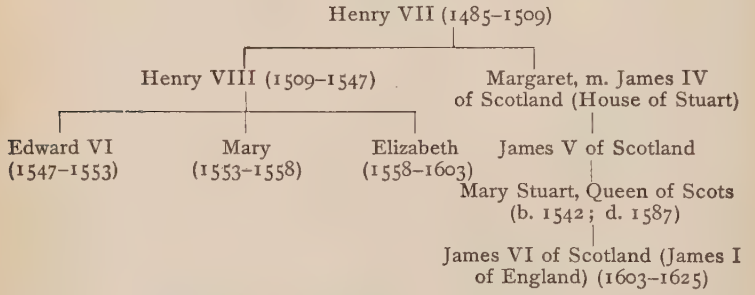

Henry VII (1485–1509)
Henry VIII (1509–1547)
Margaret, m. James IV of Scotland (House of Stuart)
Edward VI (1547–1553)
Mary (1553–1558)
Elizabeth (1558–1603)
James V of Scotland
Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots (b. 1542; d. 1587)
James VI of Scotland (James I of England) (1603–1625)

TABLE VI. THE DIVISION OF THE HAPSBURG POSSESSIONS BETWEEN THE SPANISH AND GERMAN BRANCHES

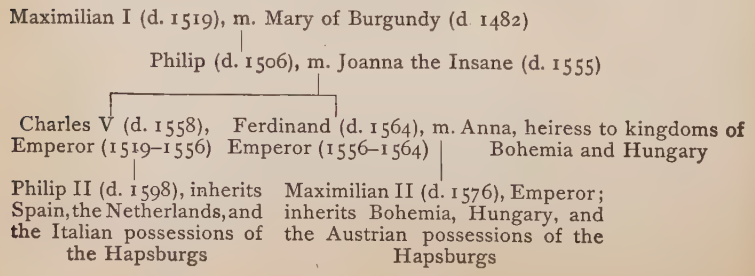

Maximilian I (d. 1519), m. Mary of Burgundy (d. 1482)
Philip (d. 1506), m. Joanna the Insane (d. 1555)
Charles V (d. 1558), Emperor (1519–1556)
Ferdinand (d. 1564), m. Anna, heiress to kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary
Emperor (1556–1564)
Philip II (d. 1598), inherits Spain, the Netherlands, and the Italian possessions of the Hapsburgs
Maximilian II (d. 1576), Emperor; inherits Bohemia, Hungary, and the Austrian possessions of the Hapsburgs

TABLE VII. RELATIONS OF THE GUISES, MARY STUART, THE VALOIS, AND THE BOURBONS

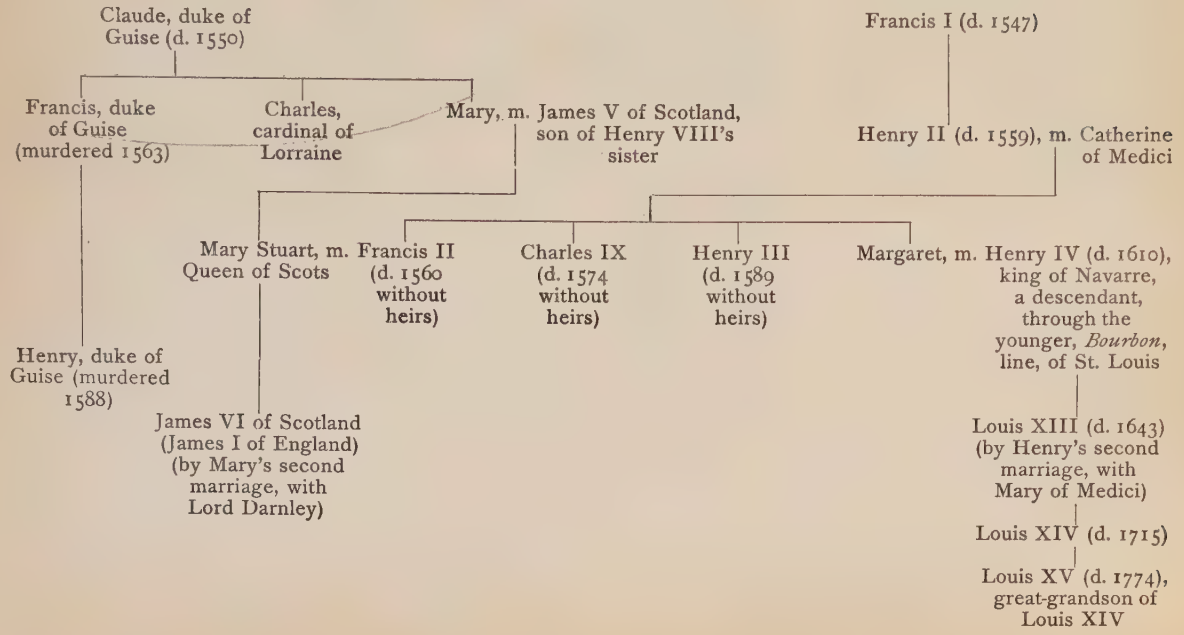

Claude, duke of Guise (d. 1550)
Francis I (d. 1547)
Francis, duke of Guise (murdered 1563)
Charles, cardinal of Lorraine
Mary, m. James V of Scotland, son of Henry VIII's sister
Henry II (d. 1559), m. Catherine of Medici
Mary Stuart, m. Queen of Scots
Francis II (d. 1560 without heirs)
Charles IX (d. 1574 without heirs)
Henry III (d. 1589 without heirs)
Margaret, m. Henry IV (d. 1610), king of Navarre, a descendant, through the younger, Bourbon, line, of St. Louis
Henry, duke of Guise (murdered 1588)
James VI of Scotland (James I of England) (by Mary's second marriage, with Lord Darnley)
Louis XIII (d. 1643) (by Henry's second marriage, with Mary of Medici)
Louis XIV (d. 1715)
Louis XV (d. 1774), great-grandson of Louis XIV

TABLE VIII. THE STUART KINGS OF ENGLAND

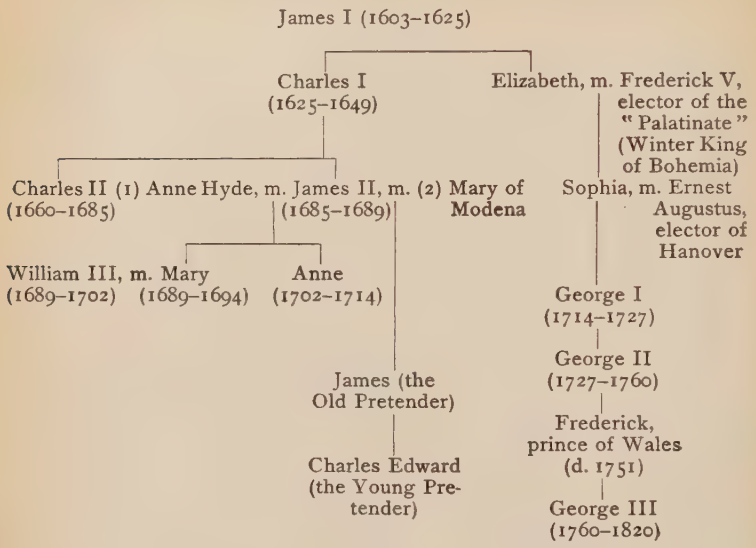
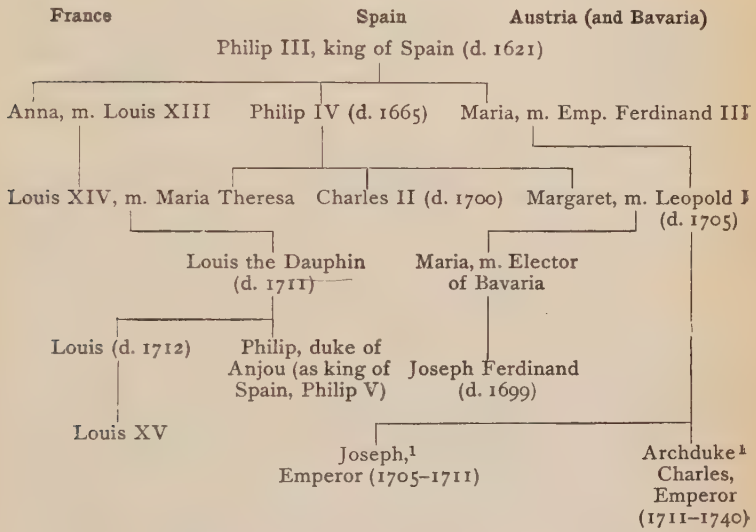

James I (1603–1625)
Charles I (1625–1649)
Elizabeth, m. Frederick V, elector of the "Palatinate" (Winter King of Bohemia)
Charles II (1660–1685)
(1) Anne Hyde, m. James II, (1685–1689), m. (2) Mary of Modena
Sophia, m. Ernest Augustus, elector of Hanover
William III, m. Mary (1689–1702) (1689–1694)
Anne (1702–1714)
George I (1714–1727)
George II (1727–1760)
James (the Old Pretender)
Frederick, prince of Wales (d. 1751)
Charles Edward (the Young Pretender)
George III (1760–1820)

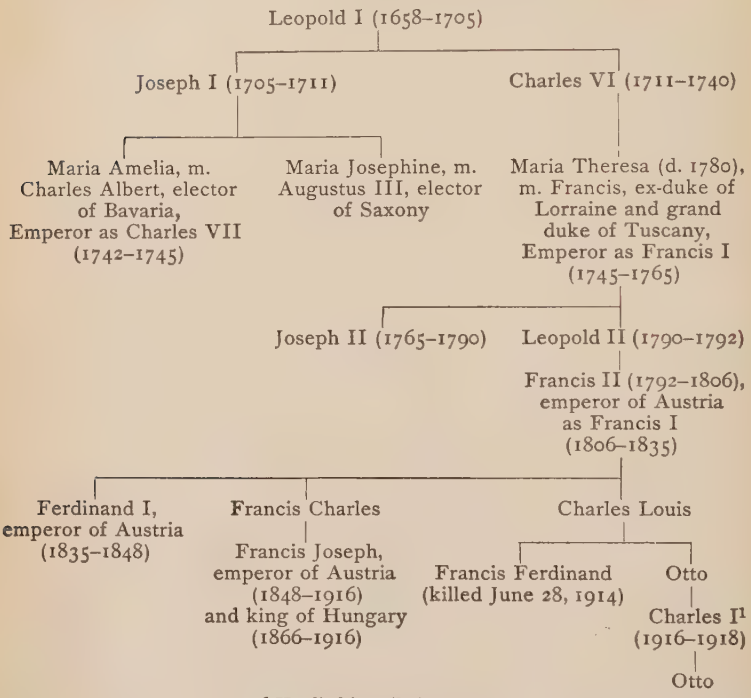
TABLE IX. THE SPANISH SUCCESSION

As the accompanying genealogical table indicates, the situation had originally been complicated by the fact that Charles II's younger sister and Leopold had a daughter who married the Elector of Bavaria. Their son, Joseph Ferdinand, was the candidate favored by poor Charles himself, but the boy's death in 1699 reduced the chief claimants to Philip of Anjou and Archduke Charles.


France
Spain
Austria (and Bavaria)
Philip III, king of Spain (d. 1621)
Anna, m. Louis XIII
Philip IV (d. 1665)
Maria, m. Emp. Ferdinand III
Louis XIV, m. Maria Theresa
Charles II (d. 1700)
Margaret, m. Leopold I (d. 1705)
Louis the Dauphin (d. 1711)
Maria, m. Elector of Bavaria
Louis (d. 1712)
Philip, duke of Anjou (as king of Spain, Philip V)
Joseph Ferdinand (d. 1699)
Louis XV
Joseph,[1] Emperor (1705–1711)
Archduke[1] Charles, Emperor (1711–1740)

[1] Joseph and Archduke Charles were sons of Leopold I by his third wife, Eleanor of Neuburg.

TABLE X. THE HAPSBURGS IN THE EIGHTEENTH, NINETEENTH, AND TWENTIETH CENTURIES


Leopold I (1658–1705)
Joseph I (1705–1711)
Charles VI (1711–1740)
Maria Amelia, m. Charles Albert, elector of Bavaria, Emperor as Charles VII (1742–1745)
Maria Josephine, m. Augustus III, elector of Saxony
Maria Theresa (d. 1780), m. Francis, ex-duke of Lorraine and grand duke of Tuscany, Emperor as Francis I (1745–1765)
Joseph II (1765–1790)
Leopold II (1790–1792)
Francis II (1792–1806), emperor of Austria as Francis I (1806–1835)
Ferdinand I, emperor of Austria (1835–1848)
Francis Charles
Charles Louis
Francis Joseph, emperor of Austria (1848–1916) and king of Hungary (1866–1916)
Francis Ferdinand (killed June 28, 1914)
Otto
Charles I[1] (1916–1918)
Otto

[1] He died in exile in 1922.

TABLE XI. THE BOURBON KINGS OF FRANCE

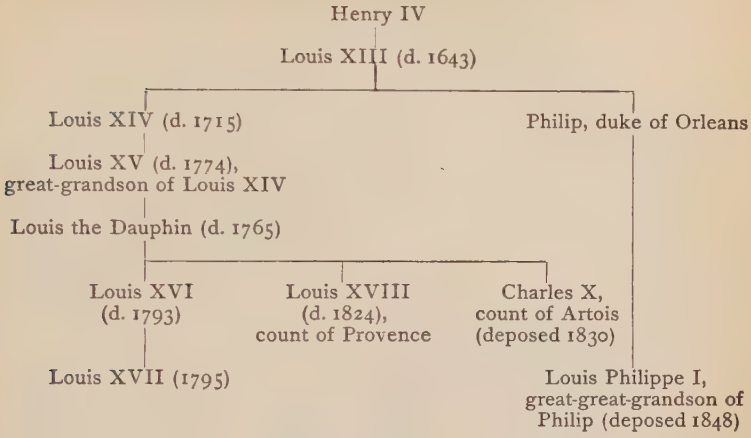

Henry IV
Louis XIII (d. 1643)
Louis XIV (d. 1715)
Philip, duke of Orleans
Louis XV (d. 1774), great-grandson of Louis XIV
Louis the Dauphin (d. 1765)
Louis XVI (d. 1793)
Louis XVIII (d. 1824), count of Provence
Charles X, count of Artois (deposed 1830)
Louis XVII (1795)
Louis Philippe I, great-great-grandson of Philip (deposed 1848)

TABLE XII. THE HANOVERIAN LINE OF ENGLISH RULERS

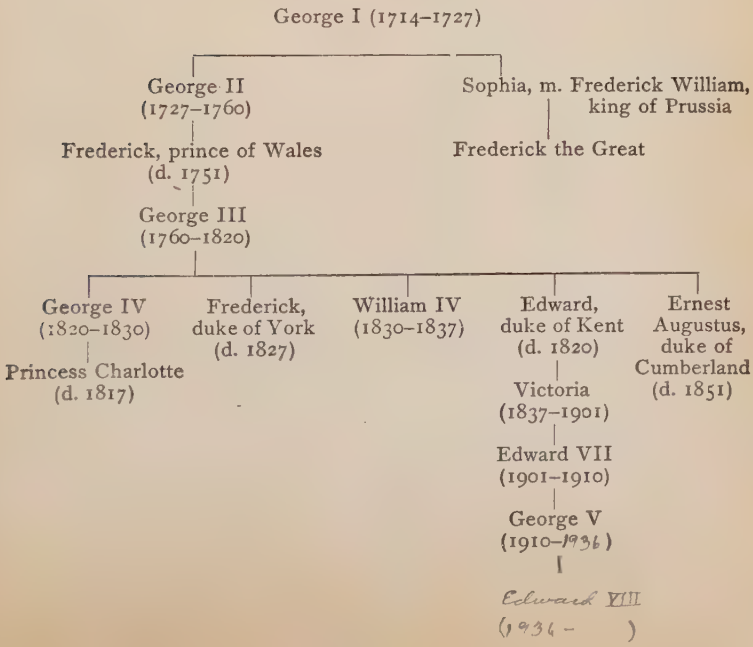

George I (1714–1727)
George II (1727–1760)
Sophia, m. Frederick William, king of Prussia
Frederick, prince of Wales (d. 1751)
Frederick the Great
George III (1760–1820)
George IV (1820–1830)
Frederick, duke of York (d. 1827)
William IV (1830–1837)
Edward, duke of Kent (d. 1820)
Ernest Augustus, duke of Cumberland (d. 1851)
Princess Charlotte (d. 1817)
Victoria (1837–1901)
Edward VII (1901–1910)
George V (1910–1936)
Edward VIII (1936–)

TABLE XIII. THE BONAPARTE FAMILY

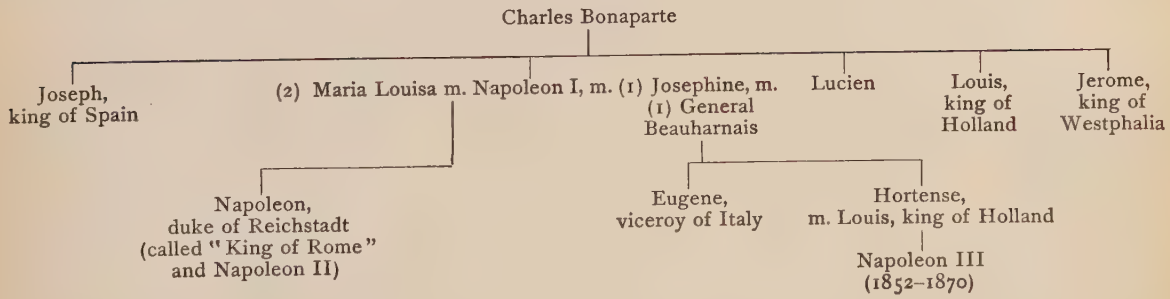

Charles Bonaparte
Joseph, king of Spain
(2) Maria Louisa m. Napoleon I, m. (1) Josephine, m. (1) General Beauharnais
Lucien
Louis, king of Holland
Jerome, king of Westphalia
Napoleon, duke of Reichstadt (called "King of Rome" and Napoleon II)
Eugene, viceroy of Italy
Hortense, m. Louis, king of Holland
Napoleon III (1852–1870)

TABLE XIV. KINGS OF PRUSSIA AND GERMAN EMPERORS: THE HOHENZOLLERNS

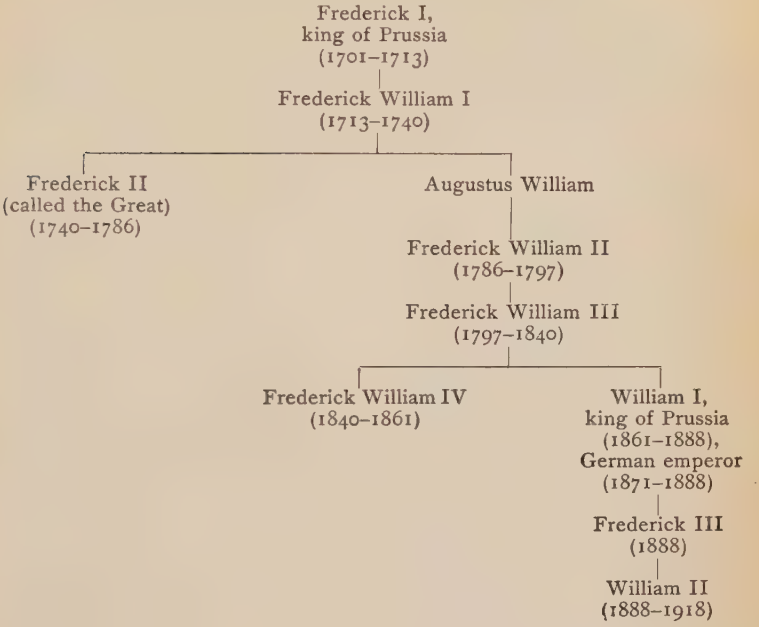
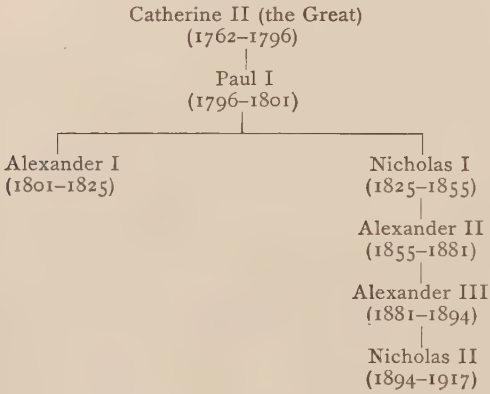

Frederick I, king of Prussia (1701–1713)
Frederick William I (1713–1740)
Frederick II (called the Great) (1740–1786)
Augustus William
Frederick William II (1786–1797)
Frederick William III (1797–1840)
Frederick William IV (1840–1861)
William I, king of Prussia (1861–1888), German emperor (1871–1888)
Frederick III (1888)
William II (1888–1918)

TABLE XV. THE TSARS OF RUSSIA: THE ROMANOFFS

Catherine II was the wife of Peter III, grandson of Peter the Great. The Romanoffs were Tsars of Russia from before Peter the Great's time until the Russian Revolution in 1917.



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Marked letters sound as in sāle, senāte, ăm, făr, åsk, account, ēve, ẽvent, lĕnd, thêre, hėr, patẹnt, īce, ĭnk, ōld, ŏbey, ŏn, côrn, möve, cọnnect, ūse, ŭnite, rŭn, fûll; *French* üne; zh *like* s *in* measure; κ *like German* ch *in* ich, ach; ṅ *running into the preceding vowel as in French* boṅ

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Varennes (vȧ ren'), 291
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Worms (vôrms), diet at, 167; Edict of, 167 f.
Writing, 6, 498; Egyptian, 7 f.; Babylonian, 17; Sumerian, 17; Hebrew, 21; Cretan, 28; Greek, 31; Phœnician, 32; Roman, 62
Writing materials, invention of, 8 f.; earliest, in Europe, 33; parchment and paper, 154 f.
Württemberg (vür'tęm bĕrĸ), 389, 390; king of, 319, 347
Würzburg (vürts'bůrĸ), 319
Wyc'liffe, John, 167 n.

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Yahveh (yä'vĕ), 22
York, House of, 161
Yorktown, 248
Ypres (ēpr'), 555
Yser (ē zêr') River, 526
Yuan Shih-kai (yů ăn' shē kī'), President, 475

Zā'mą, 67
Zep'pe lins, 536
Zeus (zös), 33, 38
Zo'di ac, 19
Zō ro as'ter, 24
Zwinglĭ, 170 f.

MAP 1

THE ANCIENT ORIENTAL WORLD BEFORE THE RISE OF THE GREEKS

This map shows the region around the eastern Mediterranean Sea, where the civilization which later so deeply affected Europe had its origin.

One should note how long and narrow is the winding Nile valley—the seat of Egyptian civilization—and how vast are the desert regions on either side. The Fertile Crescent, separated from the Nile Delta by the mountainous peninsula of Sinai (so famous in Bible history), is also only a narrow strip extending around the Arabian desert from Palestine to the Persian Gulf.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

On an outline map locate Memphis, Gizeh, Cairo, Thebes, the Valley of the Kings, Aswan, the First Cataract, the Tigris-Euphrates Valley, Sumer, Assur, Nineveh, Babylon, Phœnicia, Palestine, Crete, the land of the Hittites.

Using the scale of miles, how far is it from Memphis to Thebes? from Cairo to Babylon? from the mouth of the Nile across the Mediterranean to Asia Minor? How long is the Fertile Crescent? Is there any part of the United States which lies south of Cairo?

EUROPE
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
BALKAN MTS.
CAUCASUS MTS.
HITTITES
ARMENIA
ASIA MINOR
MEDIA
AEGEAN SEA
CIVILIZATION
Troy
Hellespont
Mycenae
Tiryns
Sardis
Halys R.
Boghaz Keui
(Khatu)
IRON REGION
TAURUS MTS.
CILICIA
Archemish
Haran
Tigris R.
Dur Sharrukin
(Sargonburg)
Nineveh
ASSUR
SYRIA
Assur
Euphrates R.
Ecbatana
Behistun
Cnossus
Crete
Cyprus
Byblos
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
DESERT
GRASS LAND IN RAINY SEASON
Sidon
Damascus
ISRAEL
Jerusalem
Dead Sea
Rosetta Mouth
Nile Delta
Canal
Gizeh
Cairo
Memphis
Pen. of
Sinai
Oasis of Siwa
(Desert Shrine of Amon)
Beni Hassan
Tombs
Amarna
ARABIAN DESERT
BAY
Babylon
Susa
ELAM
Ur
PERSIA
PERSIAN GULF
20
25
30
35
40
45
50
55
40
35
30

THE ANCIENT ORIENTAL WORLD

AND NEIGHBORING EUROPE BEFORE THE RISE OF THE GREEKS

Scale

0 100 200 300 400 500 Miles

Notice that the Persian Gulf extended 150 to 160 miles further north than at present, making Babylonia much smaller than it is today

R-B-G. CO., N.Y.

Longitude 40 East from Greenwich

MAP 2

A. THE ASSYRIAN EMPIRE

This map shows the empire of the Assyrians at its greatest extent, when Assurbanipal came to the throne, about 668 B.C. Notice that the empire includes Egypt, the Fertile Crescent, and regions to the north and east. The green portions of the map indicate the territory which at this time was occupied by the Greeks.

B. THE PERSIAN EMPIRE

The Semitic Chaldeans, working up from the Persian Gulf, first conquered Babylonia and then, with the help of the Medes, destroyed Nineveh in 612 B.C., putting an end to the Assyrian empire. But the empire of the Chaldeans was short-lived, not lasting much beyond the reign of Nebuchadnezzar (604–561 B. C.). Cyrus the Great defeated the Medes, whose territory lay to the east of Mesopotamia, in 549. He extended his realms to the Ægean in 546, and in 539 B.C. conquered Babylon. A few years later Egypt was added to the Persian empire.

The map shows the extent of the Persian empire in the days of Darius the Great (521–485). It included vast stretches to the east of the old Assyrian empire as well as almost all Asia Minor and the Greek towns on the Ægean coast.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

Trace the boundaries of the Assyrian empire on an outline of the Persian empire in order to show the extent of the first Aryan empire as compared with the greatest ancient Semitic power.

Locate Nineveh, Babylon, and the important Persian cities of Persepolis, Ecbatana, and Susa. In what part of the empire was Sardis?

Map A
ASSYRIAN EMPIRE
7th Century B.C.
Assyrian Empire
Greeks
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
EUROPE
BLACK SEA
Caucasus Mts.
CASPIAN SEA
IRON REGION
Halys R.
PHRYGIA
Asia Minor
Ægean Sea
GREECE
Sardis
LYDIA
HELLAS
CRETE
CYPRUS
CILICIA
PHOENICIA
SYRIA
Fertile Crescent
Tigris R.
ASSYRIA
Nineveh
Assur
MEDIA
Euphrates R.
Tyre
Damascus
Jerusalem
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Babylon
BABYLONIA
ELAM
Susa
Iranian Plateau
Indus R.
Memphis
EGYPT
Nile R.
Thebes
Aswan
First Cataract
Second Cataract
RED SEA
ARABIA
Persian Gulf
INDIA
INDIAN
AFRICA
10
20
30
40
50
60

Map of Two Oriental Empires: A, the Assyrian Empire at its Height; B, the Persian Empire at its Greatest Extent

MAP 3

GREECE IN THE FIFTH CENTURY B.C.

This map of Greece, including Crete, gives one an idea of the complex character of the whole Ægean region. We should first avoid an exaggerated impression of the size of Greece by noticing how small it appears on Map 1.

The Peloponnesus, or the southern part of the peninsula, is very nearly an island; it is connected with the mainland only by the narrow isthmus of Corinth. The western fringe of Asia Minor was called Ionia and was considered a part of Greece.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

On an outline map of Greece and Crete locate Cnossus, Mycenæ, Tiryns, Troy (Ilium), Mt. Olympus, Athens, Sparta, Corinth, Thebes, Olympia, Delphi, the island of Delos, the Hellespont.

About how far is it from Athens to Sparta? How far is it from the mouth of the Nile to Crete?

Describe the geographical peculiarity of the Greek world. What is the modern name of the Hellespont?

GREECE
IN THE FIFTH CENTURY B.C.
SCALE OF MILES
0 10 20 40 60 80
20
21
22
23
Longitude
East from
Greenwich
36
37
38
39
40
BALKAN PENINSULA
ILLYRIA
EPIRUS
MACEDONIA
THESSALY
AETOLIA
ACHAIA
ELIS
ARCADIA
PELOPONNESUS
HELLAS
ATTICA
BOEOTIA
EUBOEA
LOCRIS
PHOCIS
PHTHIOTIS
MALIS
ACARNANIA
LEUCAS
ITHACA
CEPHALLENIA
ZACYNTHUS
CORCYRA
IONIAN SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
AEGEAN SEA
THERMAIC GULF
CORINTHIAN GULF
ARGOLIC GULF
SARONIC GULF
PAEONIA
CHALCIDICE
Aigai
Pella
Therma
Stagira
Methone
Pydna
Olynthus
Potidæa
Scione
Mt. Olympus
Mt. Ossa
Mt. Pelion
Larissa
Cynoscephalæ
Pherae
Thebes
Pharsalus
Dodona
Corcyra
Acheron R.
Peneus
Ambracia
Ambracian Gulf
Actium Pr.
Anactorium
Argos
Stratus
Calydon
Patræ
Elis
Erymanthus Mt.
Peneus R.
Cyllene
Sicyon
Phlius
Nemea
Corinth
Isthmus of Corinth
Mycenæ
Tiryns
Argos
Mantinea
Alpheus
Olympia
Epidaurus
Trœzen
Hermion
Lepreon
Tegea
Ithome
MESSENIA
Sparta
Pylos
SPHACTERIA I.
Acritas Pr.
Tænarum Pr.
Malea Pr.
CYTHERA
Cydonia
Thermopylæ
Artemisium
Chalcis
Eretria
Aulis
Delium
Plataea
Eleusis
Megara
Athens
Mt. Hymettus
Mt. Pentelicus
Ægina
Delphi
Parnassus
Helicon
Cithæron
Parnes Mts.
Asopus R.
Ismenus R.
Thespiæ
Leuctra
Orchomenus
Chæronea
Crissa
Cirrha
Pamisus R.
Eurotas R.
Taygetus Mts.
Cynuria
Thyreatis
Arcadian Mts.
Cambunian Mts.
Pindus Mts.
Acroceraunian Mts.
Magnesia
Sepias Pr.
Artemisium
Azius R.

SYMPLEGADES IS.
Selymbria
Byzantium
Chalcedon
Perinthus
Bosporus
THRACE
THASOS
SAMOTHRACE
Aegospotami
CHERSONESUS
Sestus
Lampsacus
Cyzicus
BITHYNIA
IMBROS
Abydos
Granicus R.
Hellespont
(Dardanelles)
LEMNOS
Ilium (Troy)
Sigeum
LAND OF TROY
TENEDOS
Mt. Ida
Antandrus
MYSIA
Methymna
LESBOS
Mytilene
Atarneus
Pergamum
SCYROS
ARGINUSAE IS.
Cyme
Phocæa
Magnesia
Hermus R.
CHIOS
Smyrna
Sardis
LYDIA
PHRYGIA
Chios
Erythræ
Clazomenæ
Teos
Lebedos
ANDROS
SAMOS
Colophon
Ephesus
TENOS
ICARIA
Samos
Priene
Mæander R.
Pan. Mycale
Mycale Mt.
Miletus
Latmos Mt.
DELOS
PAROS
NAXOS
LEBYNTHOS
Halicarnassus
AMORGOS
COS
Cnidus
LYCIA
THERA
RHODES
Lindus
CARPATHUS
CRETE
Cnossus
Ida Mt.
Gortyna
Phæstus
Dicte Mt.
SEA
L.L. POATES CO., N.Y.
25
26
27
28
29
35
36
37
38
39
40

MAP 4

A. THE EMPIRE OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT

Notice that the civilization of Greece spread far to the East before it did to the West, and that the Fertile Crescent was about the center of Alexander's realms.

B. THE DIVISIONS OF ALEXANDER'S EMPIRE

This map gives a fair impression of the way in which Alexander's realms were divided after his death. Notice how small the original kingdom of Macedonia is in comparison with the territory in Asia and Africa.

This map shows also the comparative extent of Rome's possessions and the Carthaginian empire at the opening of the Punic wars. It should be used in connection with Map 4, C, to indicate the gains of Rome in the Punic wars.

C. ROME AFTER THE PUNIC WARS

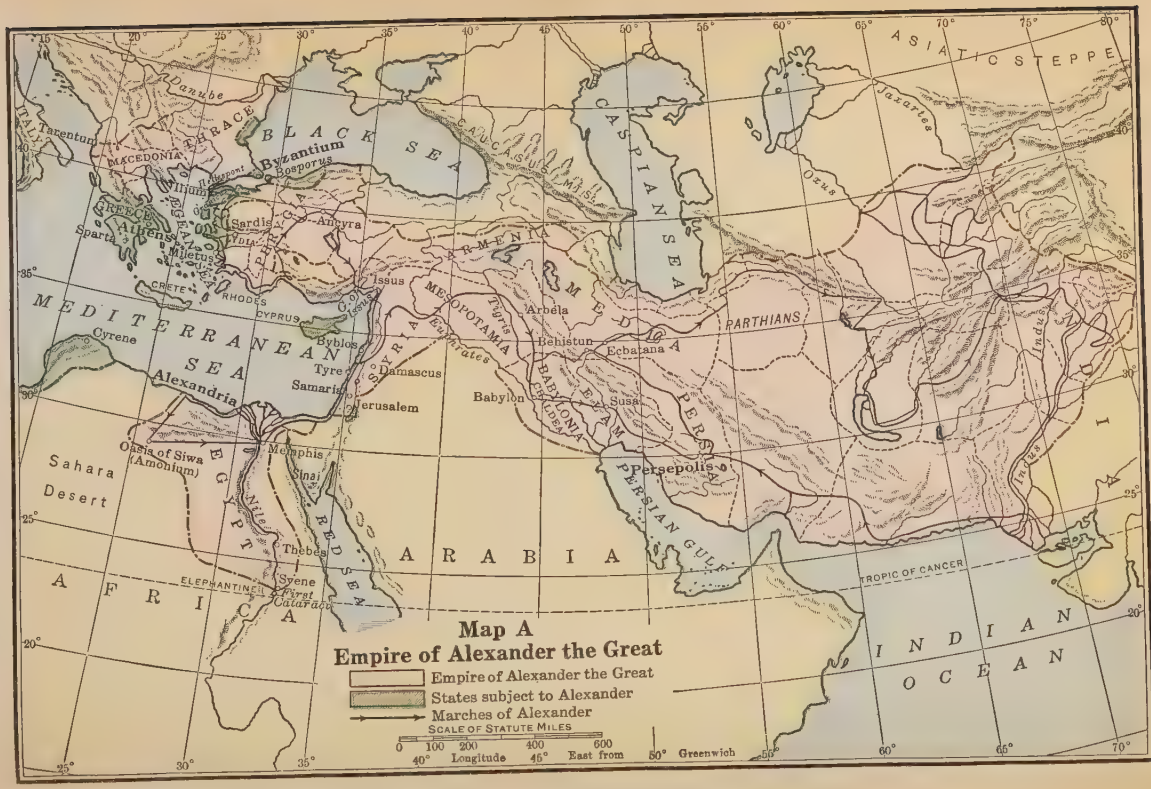
This map shows the extension of Roman power in the eastern and western Mediterranean and in northern Africa during the Punic wars and to about 133 B.C.

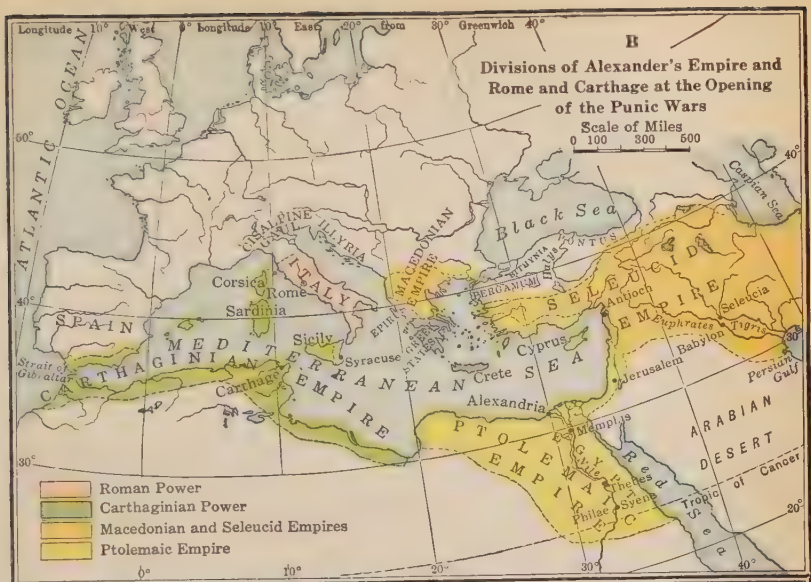
EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

Compare Map 4, A, with Map 22 and give the modern names of some of the larger divisions of Alexander's empire. How far did Alexander travel from Babylon to reach the Indus River?

Compare the size of Italy with Alexander's empire and with the Carthaginian empire. To what modern countries do the Seleucid and Ptolemaic empires correspond? Locate Alexandria, Rome, Syracuse, and Carthage.

Locate Byzantium. By what other name is this city called? About how far is it across the Mediterranean from the Strait of Gibraltar to Tyre? What countries were allies of Rome?


ASIATIC STEPPE
Danube
THRACE
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
Jaxartes
Oxus
Tarentum
MACEDONIA
Byzantium
Bosporus
CAUCASUS Mts.
Troad
Ilium
Hellespont
Sardis
Lydia
Angyra
GREECE
Athens
Sparta
Miletus
ARMENIA
MEDIA
PARTHIANS
Issus
MESOPOTAMIA
Tigris
Euphrates
Arbela
Behistun
Ecbatana
CRETE
RHODES
CYPRUS
Cilicia
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Cyrene
Byblos
Tyre
Damascus
Samaria
Jerusalem
Alexandria
Babylon
BABYLONIA
ELAM
Susa
PERSIA
Persepolis
Indus
Oasis of Siwa (Amonium)
Memphis
Sahara Desert
Nile
EGYPT
Sinai
RED SEA
PERSIAN GULF
Thebes
ARABIA
Syene
First Cataract
ELEPHANTINE
AFRICA
TROPIC OF CANCER
INDIAN OCEAN
Map A
Empire of Alexander the Great
Empire of Alexander the Great
States subject to Alexander
Marches of Alexander
SCALE OF STATUTE MILES
0 100 200 400 600
40° Longitude 45° East from 50° Greenwich


B
Divisions of Alexander's Empire and Rome and Carthage at the Opening of the Punic Wars
Scale of Miles
0 100 300 500
Longitude 10° West 0° Longitude 10° East 20° from 30° Greenwich 40°
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Corsica
Rome
Sardinia
Sicily
Syracuse
Carthage
Cyprus
Crete
Alexandria
Memphis
Jerusalem
Antioch
Seleucia
Euphrates
Tigris
Babylon
Persian Gulf
ARABIAN DESERT
Tropic of Cancer
Red Sea
Strait of Gibraltar
SPAIN
ITALY
GAUL
ILLYRIA
MACEDONIAN EMPIRE
SELEUCID EMPIRE
PTOLEMAIC EMPIRE
CARTHAGINIAN EMPIRE
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Roman Power
Carthaginian Power
Macedonian and Seleucid Empires
Ptolemaic Empire

C
Rome after the Punic Wars
Scale of Miles
0 100 300 500
Longitude 10° West 0° Longitude 10° East 20° from 30° Greenwich 40° 50°
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
GAUL
SPAIN
ITALY
Corsica
Rome
Sardinia
Sicily
Carthage
Cyprus
Crete
Alexandria
Memphis
Antioch
Euphrates
Tigris
Babylon
Persian Gulf
ARABIAN DESERT
Tropic of Cancer
Red Sea
Strait of Gibraltar
DALMATIA
THRACE
Byzantium
PONTUS
PERGAMUM
SELEUCID EMPIRE
SYRIA
PALESTINE
Tyre
Cyrene
PTOLEMAIC EMPIRE
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Roman Power
Ptolemaic Empire
Allies of Rome
R.-K.-O. CO., N.Y.

MAP 5

THE ROMAN EMPIRE AT ITS GREATEST EXTENT

Notice on this map that the Romans had conquered all the lands around the Mediterranean Sea, which formed a sort of great lake in the midst of their possessions.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

With what other bodies of water is the Mediterranean Sea connected by narrow straits? Is it possible for ships to pass today from the Mediterranean into the Red Sea (Chapter XXXVII)? Mention some of the chief Roman provinces. By comparing this map with Map 24, tell what modern countries were included in the Roman Empire.

THE ROMAN EMPIRE
AT ITS GREATEST EXTENT
(Under Trajan, A. D. 98-117)
0 100 200 300 400 500 600 700
Scale of Miles.
Wall of Hadrian
HIBERNIA
BRITANNIA
York
Rhine R.
Colonia Agrippina
Elbe R.
Loire R.
GALLIA
Marcomani
Vindobona
RAETIA
NORICUM
Burdigala
Mediolanum (Milan)
Aquileia
Garonne R.
Tolosa
Arelate
Po R.
Rhone R.
Ravenna
Ebro R.
Narbo
SPAIN
Tarraco
CORSICA
ROME
Fidenæ
Ostia
Capua
Tibur
Herculaneum
Baiæ
Naples
Pompeii
SARDINIA
Gades
New Carthage
Carthage
SICILY
Syracusa
MAURETANIA
NUMIDIA
AFRICA
50
45
40
35
30
25
15
10
5
0
5
10
15

25
30
35
40
45
50
55
50
45
40
35
30
25
Sarmatians
DACIA
Ister or Danube R.
MŒSIA
Herakleia
Chersonesus
COLCHIS
IBERIA
ALBANIA
Artaxata
ARMENIA
THRACE
Byzantium
Nicomedia
Hebrus R.
CAPPADOCIA
PONTUS
PARTHIAN KINGDOM
Tigris R.
Edessa
Nisibis
Nineveh
ASSYRIA
MESOPOTAMIA
Euphrates R.
ASIA
CAPPADOCIA
CILICIA
Issus
Antioch
PAMPHYLIA
SYRIA
Emesa
Palmyra
Seleucia
Babylon
Corinth
CRETE
CYPRUS
Cæsarea
Jerusalem
Petra
PALESTINA
Cyrene
Alexandria
CYRENAICA
ARABIA
EGYPT
Nile R.

MAP 6

THE MIGRATIONS OF THE GERMANS IN THE FIFTH CENTURY

This map shows the wanderings of the Huns and the chief German tribes who invaded the Roman Empire during the fifth century. Notice how all the Empire west of Constantinople was affected by these invasions.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

What tribes started from northern Germany? Trace the migrations of the Vandals; of the West Goths. Indicate on a map the position of the Angles and Saxons. What very important tribe made the shortest journey?

NOTE. This map should be supplemented by a careful study of the black-and-white maps opposite pages 90–91.

20
10
60
0
10
50
40
30
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GERMAN OCEAN
BRITAIN
ESSEX
KENT
Rhine R.
Weser R.
Elb.
SAXONS
ANGLES
LOMBARDS
SUEVES
Oder
Cologne
Seine R.
Paris
Treves
Chalons
Loire R.
Orleans
Strasbourg
GAUL
Toulouse
Pyrenees
Arles
Rhone R.
Aquileia
Douro R.
SPAIN
Narbonne
Tagus R.
ROME
BALEARES IS.
Strait of
Gibraltar
Carthago Nova
MEDITERRA
Carthage
THE MIGRATIONS
OF THE GERMANS
in the
FIFTH CENTURY
0 100 200 300 400 500 600
Scale of Miles.
M. H. ENG., BUFFALO.
0
10
Longitud

30
40
60
50
60
FINNS
Volga R.
Vistula R.
SCYTHIAN AND TARTARS
50
Dnieper R.
EAST GOTHS
Volga R.
Don R.
Carpathian Mts.
WEST GOTHS
Attila's Palace
CASPIAN SEA
Caucasus Mts.
40
Danube R.
BLACK SEA
ROMAN EMPIRE OF THE EAST
Constantinople
Adrianople
ASIA MINOR
SYRIA
EXPLANATION:
LIMITS OF ATTILA'S EMPIRE ABOUT 450
VANDALS
WEST GOTHS
EAST GOTHS
FRANKS
SAXONS AND ANGLES
30
Alexandria
Nile
om Greenwich
30
40

MAP 7

EUROPE ABOUT A.D. 1000

This map should be studied very carefully in order to review the previous chapters of medieval history. Notice in the first place that the Mohammedans had control of a great part of Spain and Sicily. But in northern Spain there were three little Christian kingdoms, one of which—the kingdom of Castile—was destined to be extended and become very important later. What we call France was divided up among various feudal lords, as we have seen.

The Holy Roman Empire, or Western Roman Empire (as it is called on this map), was made up of various duchies, marks, principalities, and bishoprics. It included the German Empire of today, Bohemia, Switzerland, and a great part of Italy. The Burgundian kingdom, which did not survive as an independent state, had been founded by the Burgundians from northern Germany.

Poland appears on the map as a duchy, but it was destined in our day to become an independent republic. The Prussians were at this time a barbarous heathen tribe settled on the Baltic. The Hungarians, who do not belong to the Aryan peoples, had formerly harassed western Europe; by this time they had established a kingdom which today still appears on the map, though with different boundaries.

The Slavs had established three kingdoms—Croatia, Serbia, and Bulgaria—which were to undergo many changes down to our own day.

The Roman Emperor at Constantinople ruled over the Ægean district, Macedonia and Greece, and southern Italy. The Petchenegs were a barbarous race, probably akin to the Turks, who pestered their neighbors for about three centuries.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

Draw an outline of the boundaries of the Holy Roman Empire at this time. Into what four parts were the British Isles divided?

EUROPE
ABOUT A. D. 1000
0 100 200 300
Scale of Miles.
Longitude West 5 from Greenwich
KINGDOM OF SCOTLAND
Edinburgh
IRELAND
Dublin
Cork
Durham
York
ANGLO-SAXON KINGDOM
Chester
WALES
Cardig
Oxford
London
Canterbury
Hastings
Norwich
Boulogne
Crecy
Arras
Ghent
Agincourt
Liege
LOTHRINGEN
Cambrai
Laon
Rouen
Verdun
Paris
Troyes
Orleans
Nantes
Loire
Tours
Poitiers
Bourges
Autun
Besançon
Lyon
Vienne
Geneva
Bordeaux
Garonne
Bayonne
Nimes
Avignon
Arles
Marseilles
Narbonne
Toulouse
Pamplona
Saragossa
Lerida
Barcelona
Ebro
Rhone
Tagus
Toledo
Cuenca
Lisbon
Valencia
Balearic Isles
Cordova
Seville
Malaga
Murcia
Cartagena
Zamora
Salamanca
Leon
Burgos
CASTILE
ARAGON
NAVARRE
Strait of Gibraltar
M. & H. ENG., BUFFALO.
EMPIRE OF THE FA

10
15
20
25
30
55
50
45
40
LITHUANIANS
Minsk
Pinsk
Pripet
Tchernigov
Kiev (Kiew)
RUSSIA
Luna
Roskilde
Bornholm
Rugen
Danzig
Kolberg
PRUSSIANS
POMERANIA (To Poland)
Stettin
Vistula
Plock
Gnesen
Posen
DUCHY OF
POLAND
Oder
NORTH MARK
Brandenburg
Havelburg
Magdeburg
Halberstadt
EAST MARK
Lusatia
Merseburg
Meissen
Erfurt
MARK OF MEISSEN
DUCHY OF
Fulda
Belsk
Krakow
Halisz
Prague
Olmütz
MARK OF MORAVIA
BOHEMIA
Brünn
Wurzburg
MARK OF NORDGAU
Eichstadt
Regenburg
Ulm
Freising
Augsburg
Danube
MARK OF AUSTRIA
DUKY OF BAVARIA
Salzburg
Presburg
Erlau
Gran
Stuhlweissenburg
HUNGARY
TRANSYLVANIA
Theiss
Maros
Dniester
Pruth
WALLACHIA (PATZINAKS)
Brixen
Trent
Villach
Belluno
MARK OF VERONA
Fünfkirchen
Drave
Zagreb (Agrum)
Aquileia
Venice
Sirmium
Belgrade
Danube
Varna
Vidin
Nicopolis
Peristhlava
Tirnovo
CROATIA
Ravenna
Zara
Spalato
SERBIA
Philippopolis
Triaditza (Sofia)
Nissa
THEME OF STRYMON
THEME OF MACEDONIA
THEME OF THRACE
Constantinople
Florence
Ancona
TUSCANY
Siena
Spoleto
Sutri
Ragusa
Diocles
Scodra
Skopia
Dyrrhachium (Durazzo)
Okhrida
Salonika
THEME OF THESSALONICA
Rome
CHURCH
Benevento
Bari
Brindisi
Gaeta
Naples
NAPLES
Salerno
SALERNO
THEME OF LOMBARDY
Kastoria
Larissa
THEME OF THE AEGEAN
Agrinium
Athens
THEME OF HELLAS
THEME OF NICOPOLIS
THEME OF CEPHALENIA
Corinth
Argos
PELOPONNESUS
Messina
Reggio
Palermo
Catania
SICILY
CRETE
Longitude East 15 from Greenwich

MAP 8

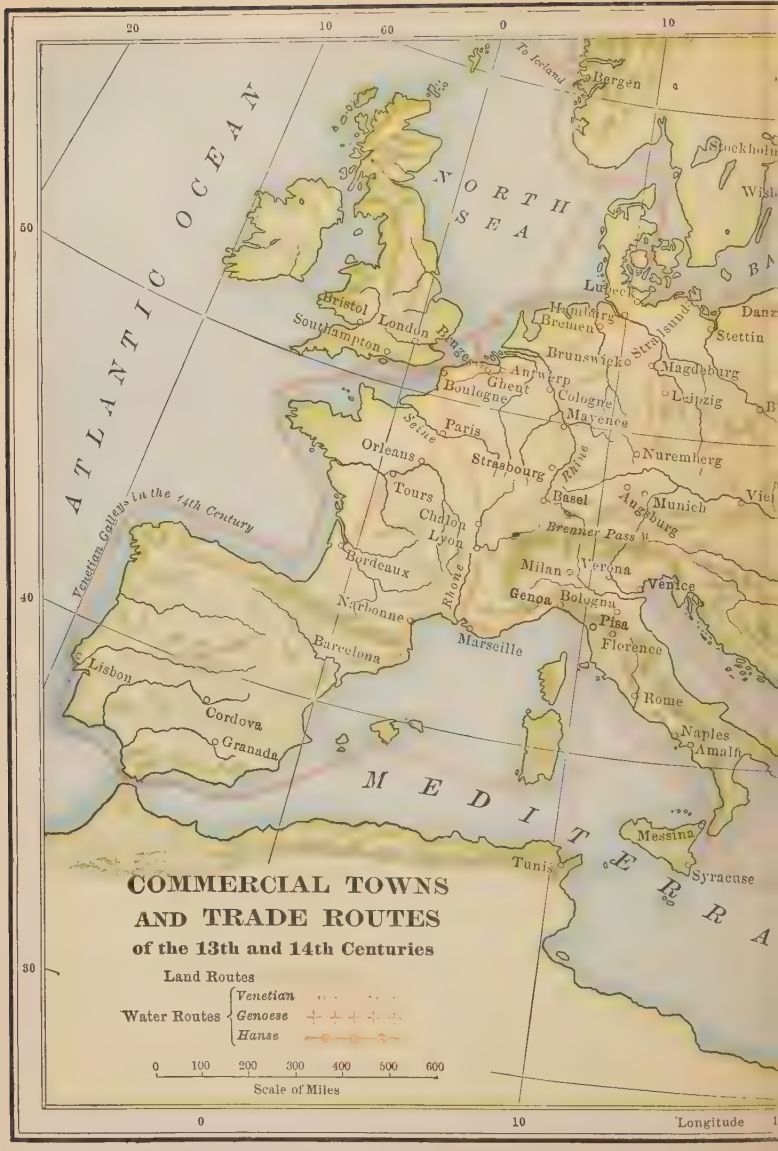
COMMERCIAL TOWNS AND TRADE ROUTES OF THE THIRTEENTH AND FOURTEENTH CENTURIES

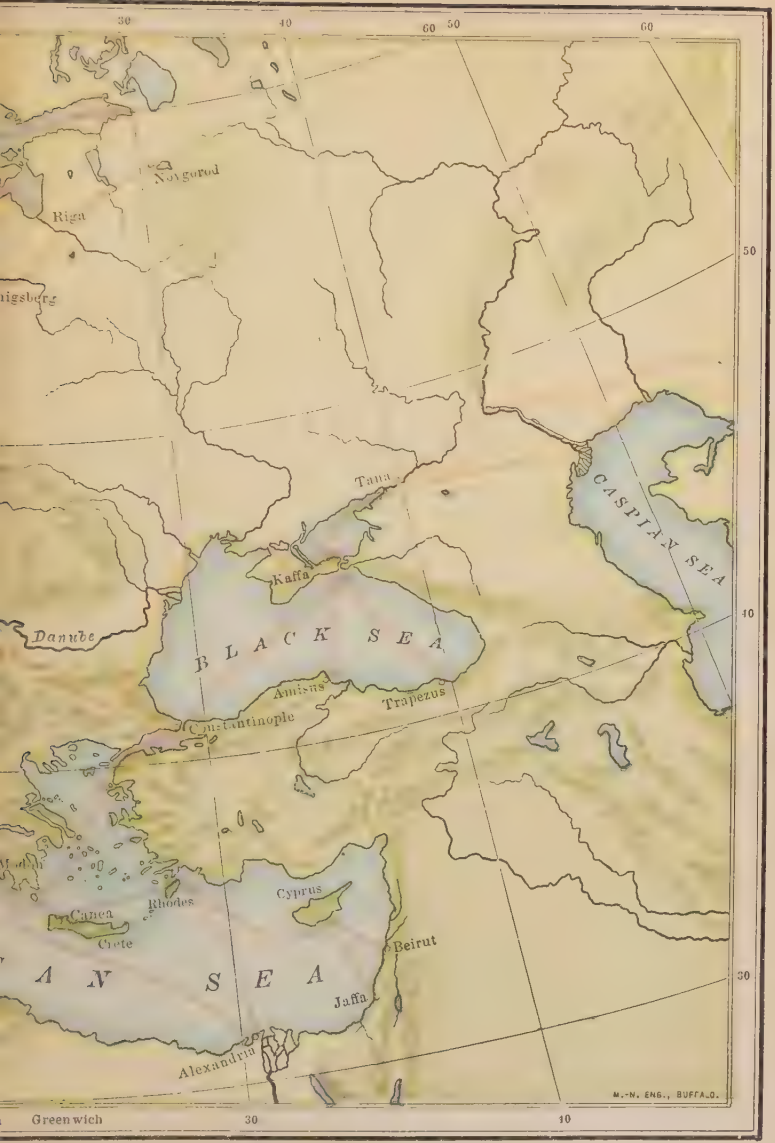
Owing to the various dangers that beset commerce at this time, groups of commercial towns formed unions for mutual aid and defense. The most famous of these was that of the German cities, called the Hanseatic League (from *hansa*, meaning "confederation" or "union"). Among the seventy towns which at one time and another were included in the confederation we find Cologne, Brunswick, Danzig, and other centers of great importance; Lübeck was always the leader. The union purchased and controlled settlements in London (the so-called Steelyard near London Bridge) and at Wisby, Bergen, and far-off Novgorod in Russia. They managed to monopolize nearly the whole trade on the Baltic and North seas, either through treaties or by the influence that they were able to bring to bear.

The League made war on the pirates and did much to reduce the dangers of traffic. Instead of dispatching separate and defenseless merchantmen, their ships sailed out in fleets under the protection of a man-of-war.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

What would be the route of a Venetian ship from Beirut or Jaffa to Venice? What would be the route of a Hamburg merchant who was carrying Venetian imports to northern Germany? With what regions in the East did the Genoese merchants trade? Trace the route of a ship from Genoa to Antwerp.


COMMERCIAL TOWNS
AND TRADE ROUTES
of the 13th and 14th Centuries
Land Routes
Water Routes
Venetian
Genoese
Hanse
0 100 200 300 400 500 600
Scale of Miles
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
MEDITERRA
To Iceland
Bergen
Stockholm
Lubeck
Hamburg
Bremen
Stralsund
Stettin
Danz
Bristol
Southampton
London
Brunswick
Magdeburg
Antwerp
Ghent
Boulogne
Cologne
Leipzig
Mayence
Paris
Seine
Orleans
Strasbourg
Rhine
Nuremberg
Tours
Basel
Munich
Augsburg
Brenner Pass
Chalon
Lyon
Bordeaux
Milan
Verona
Venice
Genoa
Bologna
Pisa
Florence
Narbonne
Rhone
Marseille
Barcelona
Lisbon
Cordova
Granada
Rome
Naples
Amalfi
Messina
Syracuse
Tunis
Venetian Galleys in the 14th Century
50
40
30
20
10
0
10
Longitude


30
40
60
50
60
Novgorod
Riga
50
Tana
CASPIAN SEA
Kaffa
Danube
BLACK SEA
40
Amisus
Trapezus
Constantinople
Cyprus
Rhodes
Canea
Crete
Beirut
SEA
30
Jaffa
Alexandria
M.-N. ENG., BUFFALO.
Greenwich
30
10

MAP 9

THE BRITISH ISLES

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

Name in order of their size the divisions of the British Isles. What is the distance from England to France? What is the distance from the coast of Wales to that of Ireland? How far is Scotland from the north coast of Ireland? What is the distance from London to Edinburgh? from Liverpool to Dublin? How far south from Edinburgh is the boundary line between England and Scotland? For what is Oxford noted?

THE
BRITISH ISLES
SCALE OF MILES
0 20 40 60 80 100 120
10 8 6 4 2 0 2
60
58
56
SHETLAND
ISLANDS
WHALSEY
FAIR I.
ORKNEY
ISLANDS
POMONA
C. Wrath
Pentland Firth
Duncansby Head
THE MINCH
HEBRIDES IS.
LEWIS
HARRIS
LITTLE MINCH
SKYE
Gulf of the Hebrides
TIREE I.
SLEA
MULL
Firth of Lorne
Moray Firth
Kinnaird Head
R. Spey
Aberdeen
Caledonian Canal
GRAMPIAN HILLS
BEN NEVIS
R. Tay
Dundee
Scone
BEN LOMOND
Bannockburn
Firth of Forth
Glasgow
EDINBURGH
Paisley
R. Clyde
R. Tweed
Giants Causeway
Malin Hd.
OCEAN
NORTH
SEA

Donegal Bay
Lough Neagh
Belfast L.
Errris Hd.
L. Erne
L. Strangford
ISLE OF MAN
Whitby
Flamborough Head
ACHILL I.
York
IRISH SEA
Morecambe Bay
Mouth of the Humber
Slyne Hd.
L. Ree
R. Suir
Howth Hd.
Liverpool
Chester
The Wash
Galway
DUBLIN
ARAN ISLES
Galway Bay
L. Derg
R. Barrow
Boston
NORFOLK
Shannon
Kilkenny
Cardigan Bay
Shrewsbury
Stourbridge
SUFFOLK
Killarney
Blackwater R.
Dingle
Lakes of Killarney
Cambridge
Cork
Queenstown
Cork Harbor
Bantry B.
C. Clear
St. David's Hd.
Carmarthen Bay
Bristol Channel
Mouth of the Thames
ESSEX
Greenwich
LONDON
Canterbury
KENT
Wells
Salisbury
SURREY
Sentac
Hastings
SUSSEX
Strait of Dover
DEVON
Exeter
DORSET
ISLE OF WIGHT
Portland Bill
CORNWALL
Land's End
SCILLY IS.
Lizard Pt.
ENGLISH CHANNEL
CHANNEL ISLANDS
JERSEY
Seine R.
ST. GEORGE'S CHANNEL
IRELAND
ENGLAND
FRANCE
WESTMORLAND
CUMBERLAND
YORKSHIRE
LINCOLNSHIRE
CHESHIRE
DERBYSHIRE
NOTTINGHAMSHIRE
LEICESTERSHIRE
RUTLANDSHIRE
NORTHAMPTONSHIRE
HUNTINGDONSHIRE
BEDFORDSHIRE
HERTFORDSHIRE
MIDDLESEX
BERKSHIRE
OXFORDSHIRE
BUCKINGHAMSHIRE
WARWICKSHIRE
WORCESTERSHIRE
STAFFORDSHIRE
SHROPSHIRE
MONTGOMERYSHIRE
DENBIGHSHIRE
FLINTSHIRE
ANGLESEY
CARNARVONSHIRE
MERIONETHSHIRE
CARDIGANSHIRE
RADNORSHIRE
BRECKNOCKSHIRE
MONMOUTHSHIRE
GLAMORGANSHIRE
CARMARTHENSHIRE
PEMBROKESHIRE
GLOUCESTERSHIRE
HAMPSHIRE
52
50
10
8
6
Longitude West from Greenwich
2
0
Longitude East

MAP 10

EXPLORATIONS AND COLONIES OF THE FIFTEENTH, SIXTEENTH, AND SEVENTEENTH CENTURIES

This map shows the whole range of early geographical discoveries from the Spice Islands on the east to Mexico on the west. The early explorers from Europe knew very little about world geography. They were searching for what they vaguely called the "Indies" (the lands whence came gold and spices), which in their minds included even Japan. When Columbus sailed west in search of the Indies, he came upon the islands to the east of the Gulf of Mexico. These he believed to be the lands he sought, and thus they came to be called the Indies. It is for this reason that the early inhabitants of the Americas were called Indians.

Within a few years the Portuguese, sailing eastward around Africa, skirted the coast of what we call India, and then made their way three thousand miles farther east across the Malay Archipelago to the Spice Islands (see map facing page 157). As knowledge increased it became customary to call this vast archipelago the *East* Indies, and the islands off the American coast the *West* Indies. India came to be the recognized name for the great peninsula of Hindustan.

In the East the Europeans satisfied themselves with establishing trading posts on the coast, building forts, and sometimes taking possession of a small island. In America, however, it will be observed that Spain, England, France, and Portugal laid claim to vast areas inhabited by the Indians.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

On an outline map indicate the route taken by Vasco da Gama; by Magellan and his companions. What explorer from England first reached the American coast?

Greenland
Iceland
Discovered 1610
Hudson Bay Co.
LABRADOR
Coasted 1600
NEWFOUNDLAND
Cabot's 1st Voyage 1497
SCOTLAND
IRELAND
ENGLAND
CANADA OR NEW FRANCE
Quebec 1608
NOVA SCOTIA OR NEW SCOTLAND
Boston 1631
Port Royal 1604
Placentia
Oporto
PORTUGAL
Lisbon
Sagres
Azores 1450
Madeira 1418
Canary Is. 1419
C. Bojador 1434
C. Blanco
Cape Verde Is. 1460
Gambia R.
Fort James
Cape Coast
Santa Fe (1598)
Charlestown
Discovered by De Soto 1539-42
C. Hatteras
Bermudas 1609-12
FLORIDA
St. Augustine 1566
Discovered by Ponce de Leon 1513
Columbus 1st Voyage 1492-93
Bahama Is.
La Salle's Settlement 1684
MEXICO (NEW SPAIN) 1519
S. Salvador
Hispaniola
YUCATAN
CUBA 1508
Porto Rico
Guadeloupe
Martinique
Jamaica
Brit. after 1655
Mexico
Vera Cruz
Guatemala
HONDURAS
NICARAGUA
Portobello
Trinidad
Columbus 3rd Voyage 1498-1500
Magellan 1519
Trujillo
Bogota
Orin
PORTUGUESE GUIANA
DUTCH GUIANA
Discovered 1513 by Vasco Nunes
South Sea (Pacific)
Equator
Quito
Guayaquil
Amazon R.
Para
Pinzon 1500
Cape Roque
Magellan's Companions in Victoria 1522
DUTCH 1633-54
Recife or Pernambuco
BRAZIL
BAHIA
S. Salvador or Bahia 1549, 1624-6
Cabral 1500
Trujillo
Lima
Callao
Cuzco
Potosi
EMPIRE OF THE INCAS
Paraguay R.
Corrientes
Jesuit Missions 1609
Asuncion
Rio de Janeiro
Magellan
Coquimbo
Santiago
Cordoba
La Plata R.
Buenos Aires
Rio de la Plata (Disc. by De Solis 1516)
Concepcion
Chile 1535
Peru 1535
PATAGONIA
Strait of Magellan 1520
Tierra del Fuego
PAPAL LINE OF DEMARCATION (SPANISH CLAIM 1627)
100
80
60
40
20
0
Longitude West from Greenwich

EXPLORATIONS AND COLONIES
OF THE 15TH, 16TH, AND 17TH CENTURIES
BRITISH
FRENCH
DANISH
SPANISH
PORTUGUESE
DUTCH
British and French Rival Claims
Longitude East from Greenwich
Tropic of Capricorn
Equator
Mayellan's Companions
Conquered by Dutch 1602-20
Cape of Good Hope
Mauritius 1598
Madagascar
Mozambique 1508
KINGDOM OF MONOMOTAPA
Zanzibar
Mombasa
Melinde
C. Delgado
Aden
Maskat
Basra
Ormuz
Diu 1536
Sura 1612
Bombay 1661
Goa 1510
Cannanore 1512
Calicut 1556
C. Guardafui
Vasco da Gama 1498
Pt. de Galle
Colombo 1517
Ceylon
Ft. William 1696
Madras 1639
(Ft. St. George)
Pondicherry 1672
Coromandel
Malacca 1511
Junk
Sumatra
Java
Borneo
Celebes
Moluccas
Philippines 1521
Macao
TONG-KING
Formosa
Expelled by D. 1635
Mindanao
Magellan died 1521
Delagoa Bay
Vasco da Gama 1497
NETHERLANDS
NORWAY
of Cancer
SLAVE & IVORY COAST
GOLD COAST
2000
3000
g the Equator
20
40
60
80
100
120

MAP 11

EUROPE ABOUT THE MIDDLE OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

This map should be compared with Map 7. It will be observed that all signs of Mohammedan rule have disappeared both in Spain and in southern Italy. In eastern Europe the region colored green is occupied by the Ottoman Turks, a new kind of Mohammedan who invaded Europe, took Constantinople in 1453, and put an end to the Eastern Empire. The Turks occupied the whole Balkan Peninsula and the regions nearly up to Vienna.

The Holy Roman Empire appears on the map as the German Empire. It will be observed that it no longer includes any part of Italy, over which the emperors had lost their control.

This map shows the division which Charles V made of his vast realms. Observe the scattered dominions of the German portion of the Hapsburg family, which were to develop into the Austrian realms, and the possessions of the Spanish branch of the family, which included Spain, the kingdom of the Netherlands, and the kingdom of Naples.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

On an outline map indicate the possessions of the Hapsburg family and show the extent of the Ottoman empire.

Locate the archduchy of Austria, Wittenberg, and Augsburg.

25°
20°
15°
10°
5°
0°
5°
10°
55°
50°
45°
40°
35°
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
SHETLAND IS.
ORKNEY IS.
HEBRIDES IS.
Bergen
Aberdeen
Edinburgh
Dublin
Waterford
Cork
Gloucester
Oxford
London
ENGLISH CHANNEL
Calais
Ghent
Cherbourg
Brest
BRITTANY
NORMANDY
Paris
Orleans
Loire
Nantes
BAY OF BISCAY
Bordeaux
Toulouse
Lyon
Rhone
Avignon
Nice
Toulon
Genoa
Milan
Turin
Verona
Venice
Florence
Ancona
Rome
Naples
Cagliari
Palermo
Hamburg
Bremen
Elbe
Berlin
Magdeburg
Wittenberg
Leipzig
Cologne
Aix-la-Chapelle
Speyer
Frankfurt
Strasbourg
Augsburg
Salzburg
TYROL
SWISS CONFEDERATION
BURGUNDY
Oporto
Coimbra
Lisbon
Leon
Burgos
Zaragoza
Saragossa
Ebro
Madrid
Toledo
Tagus
Alcantara
Cordoba
Seville
Cadiz
Gibraltar
Malaga
Ceuta
Tortosa
Barcelona
Valencia
MINORCA
IVIZA
BALEARIC IS.
CORSICA
SARDINIA
Oran
Algiers
Tunis
MALTA
KM. OF FEZ
Longitude 5° West from Greenwich 0°
5°
10°
15° Long

EUROPE

about the middle of the

SIXTEENTH CENTURY

Hapsburg Possessions

GERMAN MILES

0 100 200 300 400

MAP 12

EUROPE AFTER THE TREATY OF UTRECHT, 1713–1714

When we compare this map with Map 11, it is clear that several important things have happened between the death of Emperor Charles V and the death of Louis XIV of France. The various parts of the British Isles have been united into the kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Spain has lost its possessions in the Netherlands, and Holland appears on the map as the United Netherlands. The possessions of the House of Austria have increased and now embrace Hungary (for the Turks have been pushed out of that kingdom) as well as the region we now call Belgium, Milan, and southern Italy.

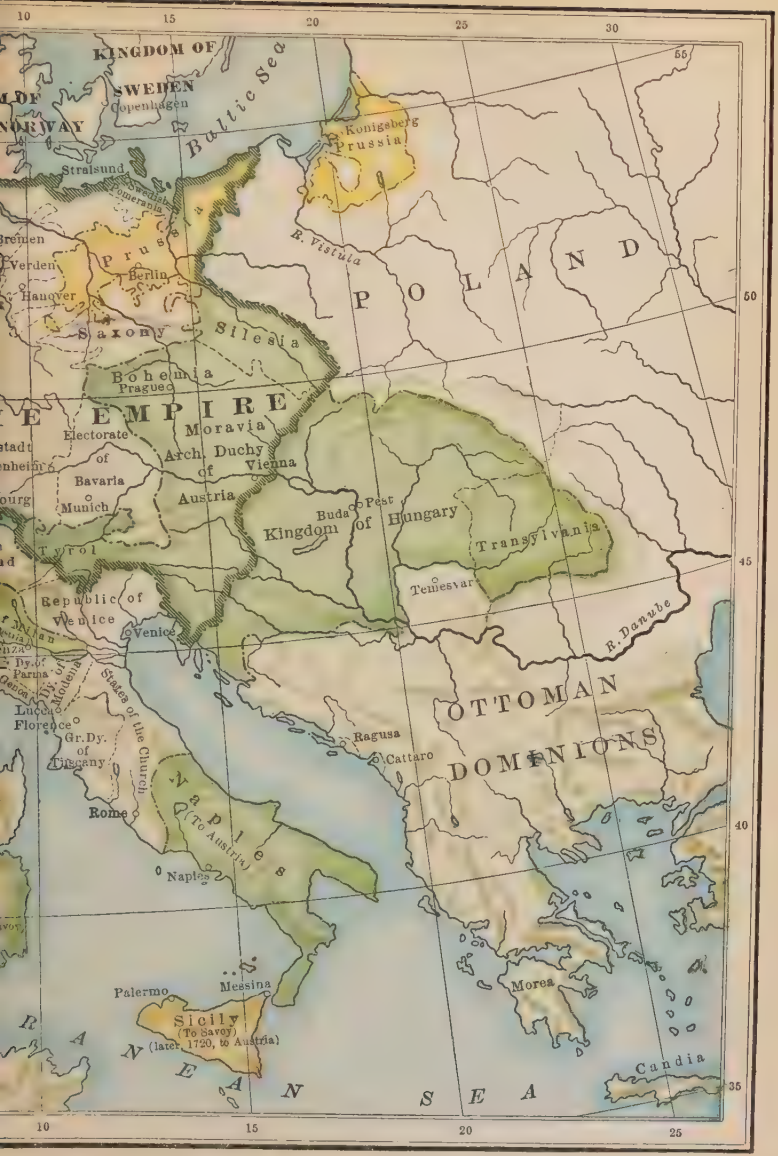
Two countries that were to be important later may be noticed. One is the kingdom of Prussia, at this time divided into two separate territories—one around Berlin, and the other at the east end of the Baltic. The other, between France and Italy, was called the kingdom of Savoy or Piedmont; it was later the nucleus of a united Italy (§§ 726 ff.).

Spain was now in the hands of the Bourbons and had lost all control of Italy.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

Draw a map of Italy and indicate the divisions of the country at this time. How did the region around Berlin come to be called Prussia?

EUROPE
after the Treaties of
UTRECHT AND RASTADT
1713-1714
Boundary of the Empire
0 100 200 300
Scale of Miles.
Scotland
Edinburgh
KINGDOM OF
GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
Belfast
Dublin
Ireland
Wales
England
London
North Sea
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
Amsterdam
Utrecht
Brussels
Oudenarde
Fontenoy
R. Seine
Paris
Versailles
KINGDOM OF
FRANCE
Avignon
Barcelona
KINGDOM OF
Madrid
KINGDOM OF
PORTUGAL
Lisbon
R. Tagus
SPAIN
Balearic Isles
Minorca
(To England)
Majorca
Iviza
MEDIT.
Seville
Cadiz
Gibraltar
(To England)
AFRI
10 Longitude West
Longitude East from


10
15
20
25
30
55
50
45
40
35
KINGDOM OF
SWEDEN
Copenhagen
Baltic Sea
Stralsund
Swedish Pomerania
Konigsberg
Prussia
R. Vistula
POLAND
Prussia
Berlin
Hanover
Saxony
Silesia
Bohemia
Prague
EMPIRE
Moravia
Electorate of
Arch. Duchy of
Vienna
Bavaria
Munich
Austria
Buda
Pest
Kingdom of Hungary
Transylvania
Tyrol
Temesvar
Republic of Venice
Venice
R. Danube
OTTOMAN
DOMINIONS
Ragusa
Cattaro
Gr. Dy. of Tuscany
Florence
States of the Church
Rome
Naples
(To Austria)
Palermo
Messina
Sicily
(To Savoy)
(later, 1720, to Austria)
Morea
Candia
SEA

MAP 13

THE PARTITION OF POLAND

The three partitions of Poland, which brought about the disappearance of that country for a time, are shown here. Observe how Prussia was enlarged and consolidated, how Austria extended its rule over still more foreign peoples, and how Russia (see map on page 215) pushed her boundaries far to the west and became the immediate neighbor of Austria and Prussia. The question of restoring Poland played an important part during the World War (see Map 26).

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

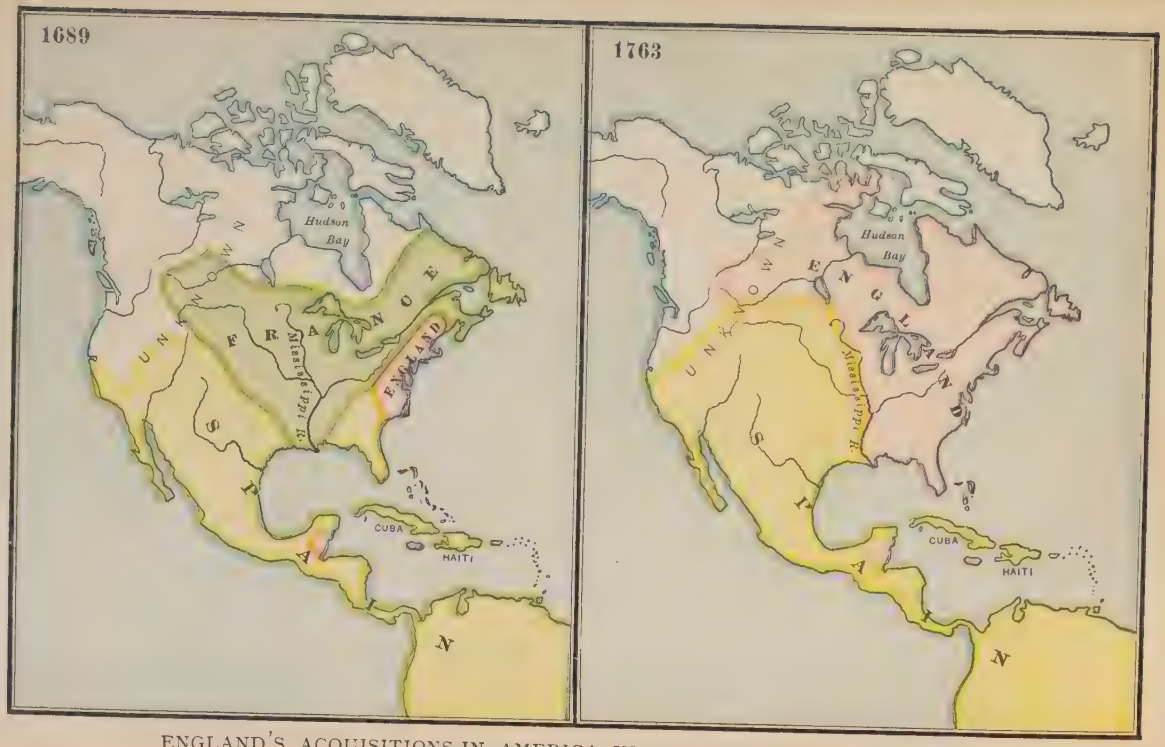
Draw a map indicating the partitions of Poland and the territories which the three partitioners added to their realms.

MAP 14

ENGLAND'S ACQUISITIONS IN AMERICA IN THE FRENCH WARS, 1689–1763

These little maps are very helpful in giving a vivid impression of the large extent of territory which France had in North America in the time of Louis XIV, and of how, as a result of the Seven Years' War, England and Spain replaced France as the great powers on the western continent.

THE PARTITION OF POLAND
50 0 50 100 150 200
Scale of Miles.
Territories taken by Russia
Territories taken by Austria
Territories taken by Prussia
BALTIC SEA
SWEDEN
Gotland
Gulf of Riga
COURLAND
Riga
Liban
Mitau
Tilsit
Königsberg
Danzig
POMERANIA
Marienburg
EAST PRUSSIA
To Prussia in 1772
Thorn
To Prussia in 1795
R. Vistula
Posen
Gnesen
To Prussia in 1793
Warsaw
To Russia in 1795
R. Duna
To Russia in 1795
R. Niemen
LITHUANIA
Grodno
To Russia in 1793
BLACK RUSSIA
WHITE RUSSIA
RUSSIA
St. Petersburg
Smolensk
R. Dnieper
R. Oder
SILESIA
Breslau
To Austria in 1795
RED RUSSIA
Lublin
Vladimir
LITTLE RUSSIA
Kiev
Ratibor
Krakow
AUSTRIA
LUDOMERIA
Lemberg
To Austria in 1772
Brünn
GALICIA
CARPATHIAN MOUNTAINS
Vienna
R. Dniester
Buda-Pest
R. Theiss
HUNGARY
R. Danube
MOLDAVIA
Odessa
TRANSYLVANIA
R. Danube
BLACK SEA
THE M.-N. WORKS, BUFFALO.



ENGLAND'S ACQUISITIONS IN AMERICA IN THE FRENCH WARS, 1689–1763

MAP 15

INDIA ABOUT 1763

All India lies in a latitude south of South Carolina, and Ceylon is farther south than the Isthmus of Panama.

It will be noted that the English controlled Bengal to the north of Calcutta and had also important holdings at Madras and Bombay. The French were reduced to Pondicherry and a small part of Ceylon. The Portuguese had formerly established a number of business agencies along the western coast of India; but only a few were left, of which Goa was the most important.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

How far is it from Cape Comorin to Delhi? from the mouth of the Indus River to the mouth of the Ganges? Locate Calcutta, Delhi, Surat, Bombay, the course of the Indus and Ganges rivers, the Himalayas. Locate Calicut. Why is this place memorable (§ 323)?

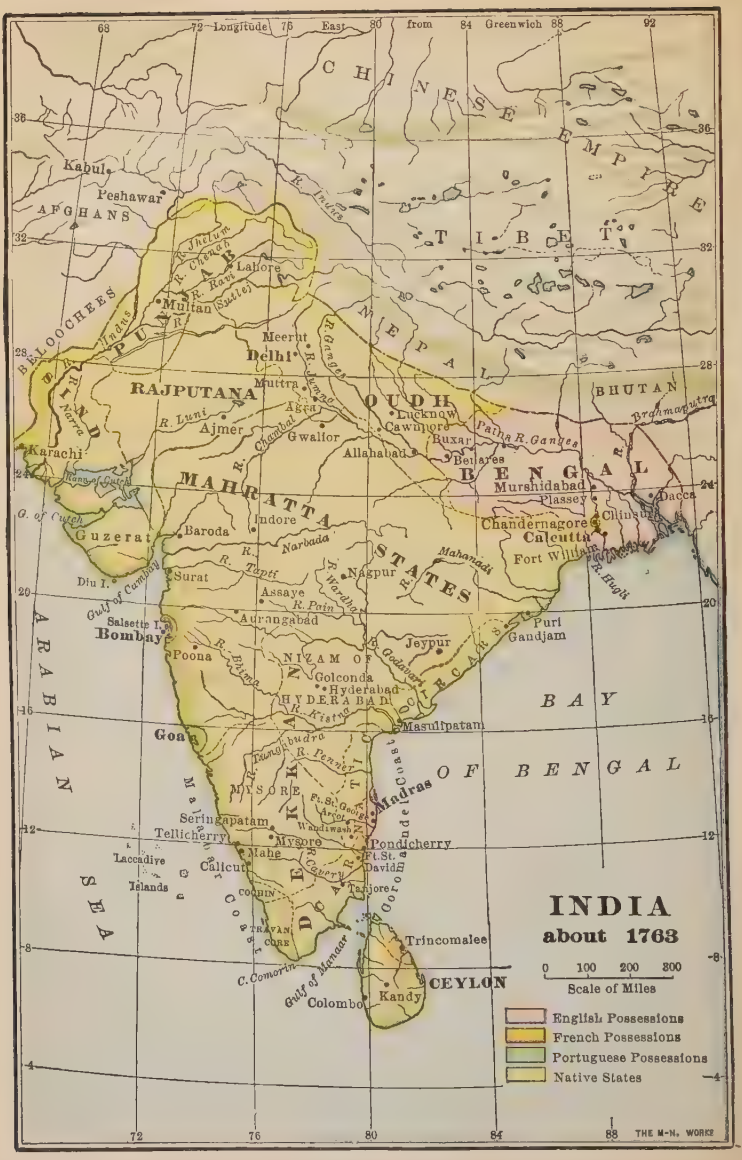
MAP 16

ENGLAND, FRANCE, AND SPAIN IN NORTH AMERICA, 1750

This map indicates the occupation of North America by three great European powers before the Seven Years' War led to an entire readjustment. Notice that the settlements were on the east coast, and that only Spain's territory reached to the Pacific. The larger part of western Canada and of the United States of today was still to be explored.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

How did Louisiana get its name? Do you remember from studying American history what the Louisiana Purchase was?


Longitude from Greenwich
CHINESE EMPIRE
TIBET
AFGHANS
Kabul
Peshawar
Lahore
Multan
Meerut
Delhi
Muttra
Agra
Ajmer
Gwalior
Allahabad
Lucknow
Cawnpore
Buxar
Benares
Patna
R. Ganges
R. Jumna
R. Indus
R. Sutlej
R. Ravee
R. Chenab
R. Jhelum
R. Luni
R. Nerbudda
R. Chumbul
R. Taptee
R. Mahanadi
R. Godavery
R. Kistna
R. Pennar
R. Cauvery
R. Hugh
R. Brahmaputra
BELOOCHES
PUNJAB
SCINDE
NEPAL
BHUTAN
RAJPUTANA
OUDH
BENGAL
MAHRATTA STATES
Karachi
Guzerat
Baroda
Indore
Surat
Diu I.
Gulf of Cambay
G. of Cutch
Nagpur
Assaye
Aurangabad
Salsette I.
Bombay
Poona
Jeypur
Golconda
Hyderabad
HYDERABAD
NIZAM OF
Goa
Masulipatam
Puri
Gandjam
Calcutta
Fort William
Murshidabad
Plassey
Chinsura
Dacca
Chandernagore
ARABIAN SEA
BAY OF BENGAL
MYSORE
Seringapatam
Tellicherry
Mysore
Mahe
Pondicherry
Ft. St. David
Tanjore
Madras
Coromandel Coast
Malabar Coast
Laccadive Islands
Calicut
Cochin
Travancore
Tinnevelly
Trincomalee
C. Comorin
Gulf of Manaar
CEYLON
Kandy
Colombo
INDIA
about 1763
0 100 200 300
Scale of Miles
English Possessions
French Possessions
Portuguese Possessions
Native States
THE M-N. WORKS

ENGLAND
FRANCE AND SPAIN
IN AMERICA
1750
0 100 200 300 400 500 1000
Scale of Miles
THE M-N. WORKS
Baffin Bay
GREENLAND
NEWFOUNDLAND
Hudson Bay
RUPERT'S LAND
HUDSON B. CO.
Lake Winnipeg
Lake of the Woods
NEW FRANCE
CANADA
Quebec
Montreal
Cape Breton I.
Halifax
Port Royal (1608)
Boston
Plymouth
Providence
Albany
Hartford
New York
Detroit
Ft. Duquesne
Philadelphia
Baltimore
Jamestown (1607)
Wilmington
Vincennes
Kaskaskia
LOUISIANA
Santa Fe (1693)
Charleston
Savannah (1733)
Pensacola
New Orleans (1718)
St. Augustine (1565)
Bahamas
Bermuda Is.
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
Tropic of Cancer
Habana
CUBA
JAMAICA
HAITI
Sto. Domingo
PORTO RICO
CARIBBEAN SEA
Mexico
NEW SPAIN
Belize
GUATEMALA
SOUTH AMERICA
Equator
PERU
PACIFIC OCEAN
UNEXPLORED
Missouri R.
Mississippi R.
Arkansas R.
Red R.
Ohio R.
Colorado R.
Rio Grande
Nelson R.
Saskatchewan R.
Albany R.
Moose R.
St. Lawrence R.
Kennebec R.
Penobscot R.
Connecticut R.
Potomac R.
Susquehanna R.
Delaware R.
Hudson R.
Main R.
Rupert R.
St. John R.

MAP 17

EUROPE AT THE TIME OF NAPOLEON'S GREATEST POWER

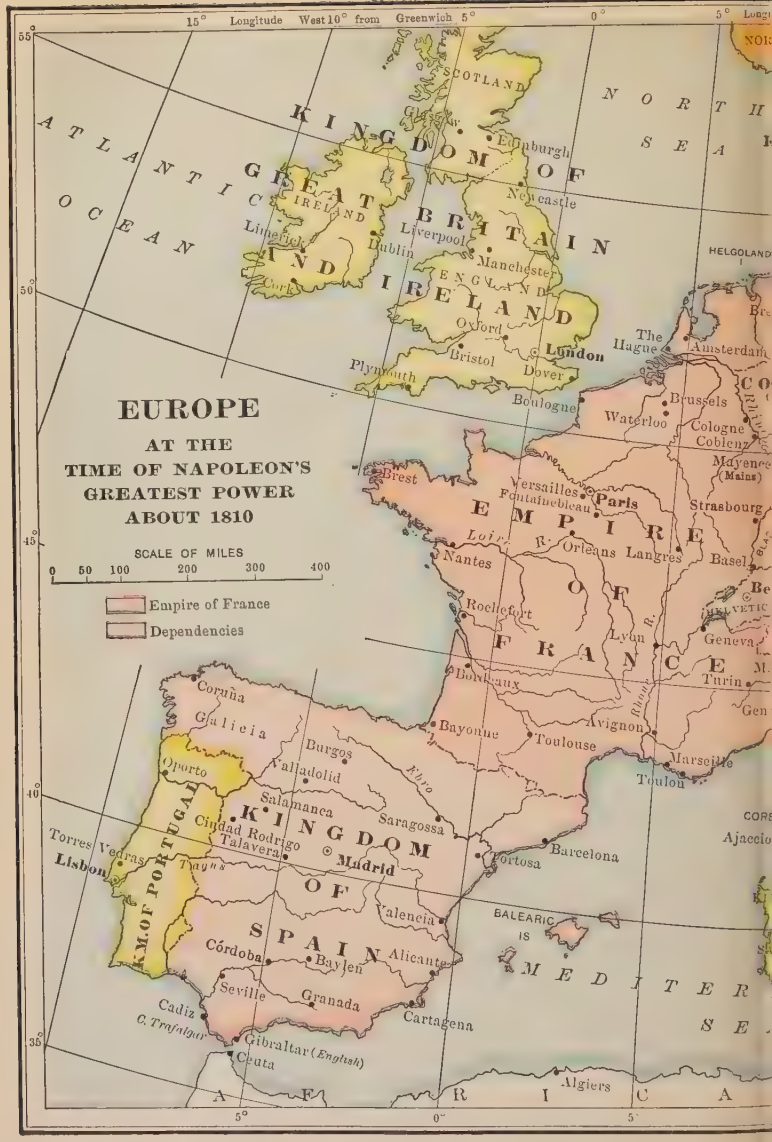
Notice that the French empire as created by Napoleon included at this time not only France but the territory now occupied by Holland and Belgium, and a portion of Germany reaching as far north as Hamburg and Lübeck. To the southeast it embraced the whole region in which Turin and Genoa are situated, and even Rome (which Napoleon had annexed), as well as districts on the east coast of the Adriatic which Napoleon had taken from Austria to cut her off from the sea.

Napoleon had created also a small kingdom of Italy of which he himself was ruler. He had given the kingdom of Naples to his brother-in-law Murat and was trying to keep his brother Joseph on the throne of Spain. Switzerland had become the Helvetic Republic, and considerable portions of Germany were included in the Confederation of the Rhine.

The kingdom of Prussia still survived, but was greatly reduced in size. Poland had been restored in a way as the Grand Duchy of Warsaw. The Hapsburg possessions still occupied a large place on the map. Napoleon, it will be remembered, had married into the Hapsburg family.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

Locate and recall some event connected with the following towns: Boulogne, Ulm, Austerlitz, Jena, Tilsit. What is the distance from Warsaw to Moscow?


EUROPE
AT THE
TIME OF NAPOLEON'S
GREATEST POWER
ABOUT 1810
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 200 300 400
Empire of France
Dependencies
15° Longitude West 10° from Greenwich 5° 0° 5°
55°
50°
45°
40°
35°
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
SCOTLAND
Glasgow
Edinburgh
Newcastle
KINGDOM OF
GREAT BRITAIN
AND
IRELAND
IRELAND
Limerick
Cork
Liverpool
Dublin
Manchester
ENGLAND
Oxford
Bristol
London
Dover
Plymouth
The Hague
Amsterdam
HELGOLAND
Boulogne
Brussels
Waterloo
Cologne
Coblenz
Mayence (Mainz)
Brest
Versailles
Fontainebleau
Paris
Strasbourg
EMPIRE
OF
FRANCE
Loire R.
Nantes
Orleans
Langres
Basel
Rochefort
Lyon R.
Geneva
Bordeaux
Turin
Coruña
Galicia
Bayonne
Avignon
Toulouse
Marseille
Toulon
Burgos
Valladolid
Ebro R.
Oporto
Salamanca
Saragossa
KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL
Ciudad Rodrigo
Talavera
Madrid
Barcelona
Tortosa
Torres Vedras
Tagus R.
Lisbon
Valencia
BALEARIC IS
SPAIN
Córdoba
Baylen
Alicante
MEDITERR
Seville
Granada
Cartagena
Cadiz
C. Trafalgar
Gibraltar (English)
Ceuta
Algiers
AFRICA

from Greenwich
KINGDOM OF SWEDEN
Copenhagen
Königsberg
Russia
Moscow
Borodino
Vitebsk
Smolensk
Vilna
EMPIRE OF RUSSIA
Tilsit
Friedland
Swedish Pomerania
Regency Danzig
KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA
Stettin
Thorn
Berlin
GR. DUCHY OF POSEN
Posen
Warsaw
Pultusk
Kiev
Poltava
Dresden
Breslau
KINGDOM OF WARSAW
Krakow
Galicia
Prague
Bohemia
Brunn
Austerlitz
EMPIRE OF AUSTRIA
Munich
Wagram
Vienna
Innsbruck
Jassy
Moldavia
HUNGARY
Trent
Trieste
Temesvar
Wallachia
Bucharest
Silistria
BLACK SEA
Venice
Belgrade
Danube R.
Varna
Sofia
Ragusa
Cattaro
TURKISH EMPIRE
Constantinople
Skutari
Adrianople
Rome
Naples
Brindisi
Salonika
Otranto
Yannina
Smyrna
Cosenza
Palermo
Messina
Syracuse
IONIAN ISLANDS
THE MATTHEWS-NORTHRUP WORKS

MAP 18

EUROPE AFTER 1815

It will be seen from this map that by the Congress of Vienna France was restricted to about the same boundaries it had before the French Revolution. To the north lay the kingdom of the Netherlands, which later was to be divided into Holland and Belgium. Eastern Prussia lay outside the limits of the German Confederation, and not half the Austrian empire was included. Italy appears about as it did before the Napoleonic period, the chief difference being that Austria had control of Lombardy and Venetia. The little duchies of Parma, Modena, and Tuscany were under Austrian influence. The king of Naples was a member of the Bourbon family of Spain (§ 654). Poland appears on the map, but was under the control of the Tsar.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

What had become of the republic of Genoa? To what ruler had the Austrian Netherlands been assigned? Draw an outline map of the German Confederation and show what three states were partly inside its boundaries and partly outside. Note that Prussia holds territory on both banks of the Rhine. This includes the Ruhr region, where the great coal and iron industries of modern Germany have been developed.

EUROPE
AFTER THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA
1815
× Locations of important battlefields
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 150 200
0° 4° 8° 12°
52°
48°
44°
KINGDOM OF DENMARK
Kiel
Lubeck
Hamburg
Bremen
MECKLENBURG
Amsterdam
Rotterdam
KINGDOM OF THE NETHERLANDS
Antwerp
Brussels
Louvain
Boulogne
Waterloo
Quatre Bras
Maastricht
Ligny
Bonn
Aix la Chapelle
Ham
Laon
Sedan
Luxemburg
PARIS
Fontainebleau
Moutereau
Arcis
Troyes
Strasbourg
Rastadt
Stuttgart
WURTTEMBERG
Frankfurt
Hanau
Wartburg
Leipzig
Lutzen
Dresden
Carlsbad
Prague
Brandenburg
Dennewitz
BERLIN
Dijon
Belfort
Basel
Zürich
Lucerne
BERN
SWITZERLAND
Salzburg
TYROL
Geneva
Lyon
Grenoble
Turin
Novara
Como
LOMBARDY
Milan
Verona
Cremona
Mantua
Venice
Laibach
Trieste
Alessandria
DUCHY OF PARMA
DUCHY OF MODENA
Ferrara
Bologna
Rimini
Ancona
Genoa
Ulzes
Avignon
Nimes
Marseille
Nice
Antibes
Leghorn
DUCHY OF TUSCANY
ELBA
Civitavecchia
ROME
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Longitude East from Gr

20°
24°
28°
32°
52°
48°
44°
SEA
Danzig
Thorn
Vistula
Warsaw
Byelostok
Vilna
LITHUANIA
RUSSIA
POLAND
VOLHYNIA
Dniester
R. Bug
PODOLIA
EMPIRE
Breslau
Troppau
GALICIA
Vistula R.
Pressburg
Komorn
Raab
Buda Pest
Debreczen
Nagy Salo
Vilagos
TRANSYLVANIA
Temesvar
Maros
HUNGARY
MOLDAVIA
Jassy
Pruth
Odessa
Akkerman
SLAVONIA
Drava
WALLACHIA
Bucharest
DOBRUDJA
Kustendji
BLACK SEA
Belgrade
SERBIA
Vidin
Danube
Ruschuk
Nicopolis
Plevna
Sistova
Shumla
Varna
Tirnova
Shipka Pass
Burgas
Alexinatz
Morava
Novibazar
BULGARIA
Sofia
Kazanlik
Maritza
Philippopolis
Adrianople
CONSTANTINOPLE
ALBANIA
Antivari
Dulcigno

MAP 19

ITALY, 1814–1859

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

What territory did the kingdom of Sardinia embrace? What circumstances led to the cession of Savoy to France in 1860? When did Austria lose Lombardy? Under what circumstances did Parma, Modena, and Tuscany unite with Sardinia? How was the kingdom of the Two Sicilies (Naples) added to the kingdom of Italy? When did Austria surrender Venetia? Trace the history of the incorporation of the papal dominions into the kingdom of Italy.

MAP 19A

SOUTH AMERICA

This shows the ten republics of which South America is made up at the present time. Colombia was formerly called New Granada; Bolivia was originally a part of Peru. Guiana is divided between the British, French, and Dutch, who still retain their colonies there. The little republic of Panama seceded from Colombia in 1903 and became independent.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

If an aëroplane flew directly south from Cleveland, Ohio, would it pass over any part of South America? What are the "A B C" powers? Why is South America sometimes called Latin America?

GERMAN FEDERATION
SWITZERLAND
EMPIRE OF AUSTRIA
FRANCE
KINGDOM OF HUNGARY
TURKEY
KINGDOM OF SARDINIA
Ceded to France 1860
LOMBARDO-VENETIA
GRAND DUCHY OF TUSCANY
STATES OF THE CHURCH
KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES
Adriatic Sea
TYRRHENIAN SEA
Corsica (To France)
SARDINIA
Part of Kingdom of Sardinia
La Maddalena I.
Caprera I.
Cagliari
SICILY
Malta (To Great Britain)
AFRICA
Genoa
Nice
Monaco
Turin
Milan
Venice
Florence
Rome
Naples
Palermo
Messina
Trapani
Marsala
Girgenti
Catania
Syracuse
Reggio
Taranto
Otranto
Barletta
Foggia
Benevento
Capua
Gaeta
Civitavecchia
Ancona
Pesaro
Lissa
Fiume
Trieste
Udine
Trent
Bormio
Chiavenna
Bergamo
Brescia
Verona
Padua
Mantua
Parma
Modena
Bologna
Ferrara
Ravenna
Comacchio
Lucca
Pisa
Leghorn
Siena
Perugia
Orvieto
Viterbo
Aquila
Velletri
Frosinone
Sora
Isernia
Campobasso
Salerno
Foggia
Barletta
Trani
Bari
Taranto
Otranto
Reggio
Milazzo
Catania
Syracuse
Girgenti
Trapani
Palermo
Marsala
Calatafimi
Messina
Scilla
Calabria
Ultra
Calabria
Citra
Ionian Sea
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Genoa
Gulf of Naples
Gulf of Taranto
Lake Garda
Lake Como
Lake Maggiore
R. Po
R. Adige
R. Tiber
R. Volturno
R. Arno
R. Danube
Milan Canal
Pavia Canal
Pontremoli Pass
Tarvis Pass
Splugen Pass
Bormio Pass
Tonale Pass
Stelvio Pass
Brenner Pass
Ceded to France 1860
Ceded to France 1860
Nice
Savoy
Monaco
Duchy of Massa
Duchy of Lucca
Duchy of Parma
Duchy of Modena
Duchy of Piacenza
Duchy of Reggio
Duchy of Novi
Duchy of Casalo
Duchy of Trebbia
Duchy of Alessandria
Duchy of Pontremoli
Duchy of Sabbionetta
Duchy of Guastalla
Duchy of Mirandola
Duchy of Urbino
Duchy of Castro
Duchy of Benevento
Duchy of Pontecorvo
Duchy of Ronciglione
Duchy of Frosinone
Duchy of Sora
Duchy of Isernia
Duchy of Campobasso
Duchy of Foggia
Duchy of Trani
Duchy of Bari
Duchy of Taranto
Duchy of Otranto
Duchy of Reggio
Duchy of Milazzo
Duchy of Catania
Duchy of Syracuse
Duchy of Girgenti
Duchy of Trapani
Duchy of Palermo
Duchy of Marsala
Duchy of Calatafimi
Duchy of Messina
Duchy of Scilla
Duchy of Calabria Ultra
Duchy of Calabria Citra
Duchy of Ionian Sea
Duchy of Gulf of Venice
Duchy of Gulf of Genoa
Duchy of Gulf of Naples
Duchy of Gulf of Taranto
Duchy of Lake Garda
Duchy of Lake Como
Duchy of Lake Maggiore
Duchy of R. Po
Duchy of R. Adige
Duchy of R. Tiber
Duchy of R. Volturno
Duchy of R. Arno
Duchy of R. Danube
Duchy of Milan Canal
Duchy of Pavia Canal
Duchy of Pontremoli Pass
Duchy of Tarvis Pass
Duchy of Splugen Pass
Duchy of Bormio Pass
Duchy of Tonale Pass
Duchy of Stelvio Pass
Duchy of Brenner Pass
ITALY
1814-1859
0 50 100
Scale of Miles
8 M.-N. ENG., BUFFALO 10
12 Longitude East 14 from Greenwich 16

CARIBBEAN SEA
Barranquilla
Cartagena
Panama
Venezuela
La Guaira
Caracas
TRINIDAD I. (Br.)
Georgetown
Paramaribo
Cayenne
VENEZUELA
GUIANA
Orinoco R.
Medellin
Bogota
Buena-ventura
COLOMBIA
Mouths of the Amazon
Marajo I.
EQUATOR
Quito
ECUADOR
Iquitos
Tabatinga
Manaos
Belem
São Luiz
Fortaleza
Rio Negro
Amazon R.
Madeira R.
Marañon
Porto Velho
BRAZIL
Recife
Juazeiro
Callao
Lima
PERU
Cuzco
Lake Titicaca
Mt. Sorata
La Paz
Matto Grosso
São Salvador
Arequipa
Mollendo
Tacna
Arica
BOLIVIA
Sucre
Corumba
Cataläo
Piraporo
Iquique
Potosi
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
Antofagasta
Asuncion
Cape Frio
Rio de Janeiro
Santos
São Paulo
DESVENTURADOS IS.
Tucuman
Porto Alegre
Mt. Aconcagua
Valparaiso
Santiago
JUAN FERNANDEZ ISLANDS
Cordoba
Rosario
Buenos Aires
Montevideo
Concepción
Bahia Blanca
Puerto Montt
G. of San Matias
G. of St. George
Cape Blanco
L. Buenos
PATAGONIA
Strait of Magellan
Punta Arenas
TIERRA DEL FUEGO
FALKLAND IS. (Br.)
Cape Horn
SOUTH GEORGIA (Br.)
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
SOUTH AMERICA
Scale of statute miles
0 200 400 600 800 1000
★ Capitals of independent countries
⊙ Capitals of European colonies
Principal railroads
Longitude West from Greenwich

MAP 20

THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN 1914

It will be observed that there is no large division of the earth's surface in which Great Britain has failed to secure a foothold. Her holdings girdle the globe and extend north and south, from the Arctic to the Antarctic. Since 1914 she has added to her African possessions most of the German colonies (see Map 23). It should be remembered, however, that the vast dominions of Canada, Australia, the Union of South Africa, and the new Irish Free State are, in all their home affairs, independent of the mother country, although they regard themselves as parts of the British Empire.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

Turn to the table at the end of Chapter XXXV and locate on the map the more important parts of the British Empire. How far is it from Liverpool to Auckland? from London to Melbourne? from Liverpool to Bombay around Africa? What other route can be taken between these two points? What is the advantage of the Panama Canal in going from England to New Zealand? How far is it from Vancouver to Yokohama?

180
160
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
80
60
40
20
0
20
40
60
ARCTIC OCEAN
Grant Land
GREENLAND
Fr. Patrick I.
Parry Islands
Devon Island
Banks Island
Victoria Island
Baffin Bay
Baffin Island
Davis Strait
Bering Strait
ALASKA
Arctic Circle
Dawson
Klondik
YUKON
NORTH WEST TERRITORIES
Hudson Bay
Bering Sea
DOMINION OF CANADA
BRITISH COLUMBIA
ALBERTA
SASKATCHEWAN
MANITOBA
ONTARIO
QUEBEC
LABRADOR
Queen Charlotte Islands
Vancouver I.
Victoria
Vancouver
Vancouver to Yokohama 4320 miles
Quebec
Montreal
Ottawa
Chicago
NEWFOUNDLAND
NOVA SCOTIA
St. Johns
Halifax
Liverpool to Quebec 2634 miles
GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
New York to Liverpool 3086 miles
Auckland to Liverpool 10936 miles
San Francisco
UNITED STATES
Washington
New York
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Bermuda Is.
Bahama Is.
New Orleans
Auckland 6780 miles
Tropic of Cancer
Hawaii
Porto Rico
Leeward Is.
Jamaica
Dominica
Windward Is.
Barbados
Trinidad
PACIFIC OCEAN
Panama
BRITISH GUIANA
Victoria to Vancouver
Palmyra
Fanning I.
Christmas I.
Phoenix Is.
Malden I.
Equator
Union Group
Samoa Is.
Manhiki Is.
Liverpool to Auckland 10503 miles
Tonga Is.
Cook Is.
Tropic of Capricorn
Pitcairn I.
Ducie I.
Kermadec Is.
Rio de Janeiro
Valparaiso
Buenos Aires
Tristan da Cunha
Chatham I.
Falkland Is.
Magellan Str.
South Georgia
ANTARCTIC OCEAN
South Shetlands
Graham Land
Longitude 80 West 60 from 40 Greenwich 20

THE BRITISH EMPIRE, 1914

British Possessions are colored in Pink

MAP 21

WESTERN PORTION OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE BEFORE THE REVOLUTION OF 1917

The object of this map is to show the vast extent of the Russian empire compared with the rest of Europe. The result of the World War was the loss of considerable portions to the west (Poland, the Baltic provinces, and Finland; see Map 26), which have become independent states. Siberia and the Central Asiatic provinces are in a doubtful condition. The Alliance of Socialist Soviet Republics, with its capital at Moscow, includes Russia proper, Ukraine, White Russia, Transcaucasia (see Map 26), and a Far-Eastern Republic established in Siberia.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

Locate Petrograd and Moscow. How far is it from Petrograd to the Crimea? from Moscow to the Ural Mountains? Do you remember anything which has been said about Novgorod? How did St. Petersburg (Petrograd) happen to be founded? Why have the Russians interfered in the affairs of the Balkan Peninsula?

WESTERN PORTION OF THE
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
BEFORE THE REVOLUTION OF 1917
Boundary of the Russian Empire
10°
0°
10°
20°
30°
60°
50°
40°
Longitude
Shetland Islands
Christiania
Trondhjem
Narvik
Torneå
Gulf of Bothnia
Gulf of Finland
Tammerfors
Åbo
Helsingfors
Stockholm
Kronstadt
Lake Ladoga
Schlusselburg
St. Petersburg (Petrograd)
Novgorod
Revel
BALTIC PROVINCES
Riga
Libau
Pskov
Tver
Moscow
Kaluga
Tula
Orel
Chernigov
Kharkov
Poltava
Ekaterinoslav
SOUTH RUSS
Kishinev
Odessa
Akkerman
Sea of Azov
Crimea
Sevastopol
Balaklava
Kiev
Volhynia
Podolia
Dniester R.
Bessarabia
Minsk
Grodno
Vilna
Memel
Tilsit
Königsberg
Danzig
Thorn
Warsaw
POLAND
Lodz
Breslau
Lublin
LITHUANIA
Byelostok
Skagerrak
Kattegat
Copenhagen
Malmö
Baltic Sea
Hamburg
Bremen
Berlin
Leipzig
Dresden
Cologne
Brussels
Amsterdam
The Hague
London
Dover
Paris
Munich
Vienna
Budapest
AUSTRIA HUNGARY
Trieste
Venice
Milan
Genoa
Rome
Naples
Adriatic Sea
BOSNIA
HERZEGOVINA
SERBIA
Belgrade
RUMANIA
Bucharest
MONTENEGRO
Cetinje
BULGARIA
Sofia
EASTERN RUMELIA
Philippopolis
TURKEY
Salonika
Bosporus
Constantinople
Sea of Marmora
Dardanelles
Aegean Sea
GREECE
Athens
ASIA MINOR
TURKISH EMPIRE
BLACK SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
AFRICA
NORTH SEA
ENGLAND
SCOTLAND
Glasgow
Edinburgh
Hull
DENMARK
HOLLAND
BELGIUM
FRANCE
SWITZERLAND
LUXEMBURG
Metz
Nancy
Calais
Dover
THE MATTHEWS-NORTHRUP WORKS

NOTE: Finland, the Baltic Provinces, Poland and Caucasus are all, except Finland, integral portions of the Russian Empire; they have nevertheless been assigned a special color in the map on account of certain peculiarities in the relation of each to the Russian government.
0 100 200 300 400 500
Scale of Miles
OCEAN
Kolguev
Gulf of Ob
Petchora
Archangel
URAL MOUNTAINS
SIBERIA
Tobolsk
(Sibir)
Irtish R.
Tara
Tomsk
Kolyvan
Tyumen
Omsk
Vyatka
Nizhni Novgorod
Kazan
Semipalatinsk
Kirghiz Steppe
Orenburg
Uralsk
Saratov
Volga R.
Ural R.
CENTRAL ASIA
Lake Balkash
Kazalinsk
Aulieata
Perovsk
Syr Daria R.
Chemkent
TURKESTAN
Andijan
Margelan
Tashkent
Kokand
Ferghana
Astrakhan
Mouths of the Volga
Stavropol
CASUS
CAUCASUS
Derbent
Tiflis
MTS.
Elisavetpol
Baku
TRANSCASPIAN PROVINCE
KHIVA
Khiva
Amu Daria R.
Bokhara
Samarkand
BOKHARA
Oxus R.
CASPIAN SEA
Krasnovodsk
Askhabad
Merv
Khulm
AFGHANISTAN
Tabriz
PERSIA
Greenwich
50°
60°
70°
80°
90°
60°
50°
40°

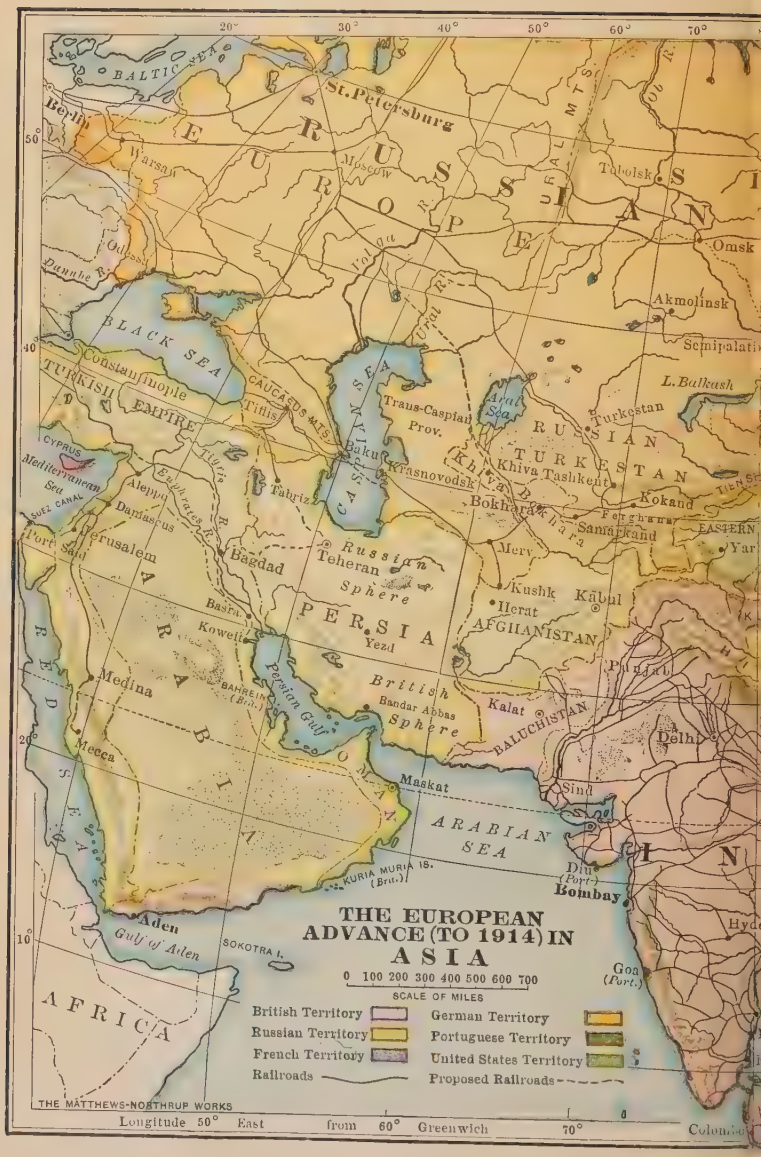
MAP 22

THE EUROPEAN ADVANCE (TO 1914) IN ASIA

Before the World War, European powers had extended their control over a great part of the huge continent of Asia. They interfered in countries like China, Persia, and Turkey, which they did not pretend to rule. China is made up of China proper, with perhaps four hundred million inhabitants, and its outlying provinces of Manchuria, Mongolia, and Tibet. The last appears to be practically independent. After the war and the Bolshevik revolution there was much uncertainty in Siberia, and conditions are not yet settled. Notice the extent of British India and of French Indo-China. Siam is an independent and progressive country. Japan controls Korea; Afghanistan and Persia are independent. The new Turkish republic includes not only Asia Minor but regions to the east. France and England exercise mandates over Palestine, Syria, and Mesopotamia. The Arabs have of late shown a desire to annex the regions to the north.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

Draw an outline map indicating the boundaries of the Chinese republic, the British possessions in Asia, and the territories of the United States. Can you tell why Russia was so eager to get possession of Manchuria? Where is Aden? the Straits Settlements? Hongkong? Shantung? Why did the last named excite so much interest for a time? Give some historical facts connected with Calcutta; with Madras.


THE EUROPEAN ADVANCE (TO 1914) IN ASIA
0 100 200 300 400 500 600 700
SCALE OF MILES
British Territory
Russian Territory
French Territory
Railroads
German Territory
Portuguese Territory
United States Territory
Proposed Railroads
THE MATTHEWS-NORTHRUP WORKS
Longitude 50° East from 60° Greenwich 70°
EUROPEAN RUSSIAN TURKESTAN
PERSIA
ARABIA
AFRICA
AFGHANISTAN
BALUCHISTAN
TURKISH EMPIRE
St. Petersburg
Moscow
Berlin
Warsaw
Odessa
Constantinople
Tiflis
Baku
Tabriz
Teheran
Bagdad
Basra
Kuweit
Medina
Mecca
Aden
Gulf of Aden
Suez Canal
Port Said
Damascus
Aleppo
Jerusalem
Mediterranean Sea
Cyprus
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
Traus-Caspian Prov.
Khiva
Tashkent
Bokhara
Samarkand
Kokand
Krasnovodsk
Merv
Kushk
Herat
Kabul
Kalat
Yezd
Russian Sphere
British Sphere
Persian Gulf
Red Sea
Arabian Sea
Maskat
Bahrein (Brit.)
Kuria Muria Is. (Brit.)
Sokotra I.
Tobolsk
Omsk
Akmolinsk
Semipalatinsk
L. Balkash
Delhi
Sind
Bombay
Goa (Port.)
Diu (Port.)
Colombo

Okhotsk
SEA OF OKHOTSK
SAKHALIN
KURIL IS.
HOKKAIDO
Yenisetsk
Krasnoyarsk
Irkutsk
L. Baikal
Lena R.
Amur R.
STANOVOI RANGE
Khabarovsk
MANCHURIA
Harbin
Kirin
Vladivostok
Hakodate
SEA OF JAPAN
HONSHU
Tokyo
Yokohama
Kobe
Nagasaki
Urga
MONGOLIA
Desert of Gobi
Kalgan
Liaoyang
Mukden
Tie Pass
Peking
Tientsin
Grand Canal
Liao R.
G. of Chihli
Pt. Arthur (Russ.)
Weihaiwei (Brit.)
YELLOW SEA
Kiaochow
Shimonoseki
Shanghai
Nanking
Hankow
Siangtan
Siangtan R.
Yangtze R.
Nimpo
EAST CHINA SEA
JAPANESE EMPIRE
Foochow
FORMOSA
PACIFIC OCEAN
Amoy
Canton
Macao
Hongkong (Brit.)
Kwangchow (Fr.)
Lhasa
BHUTAN
Yangtze
Mandalay
BURMA
TONGKING
Hanoi
Gulf of Tongking
HAINAN
FRENCH INDO-CHINA
Manila
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS (to U. S.)
Sulu Sea
Rangoon
BAY OF BENGAL
Bangkok
SIAM
Menam
CAMBODIA
Saigon
COCHIN CHINA
CONDORE I.
ANDAMAN IS.
Gulf of Siam
NICOBAR IS.
Malay Peninsula
STRAITS SETTLEMENTS
Singapore
NORTH BORNEO
SARAWAK
BORNEO
CELEBES
CELEBES SEA
90°
100°
110°
120°
130°
140°
150°
50°
40°
30°
20°
10°

MAP 23

AFRICA BEFORE AND AFTER THE WORLD WAR

In 1860 scarcely anything was known to Europeans of the interior of the vast African continent. Now it has been explored, and almost all of it is under the control of European powers. Only three regions—Egypt, Abyssinia, and Liberia—are independent countries.

Before the World War, Germany controlled what appears on the map as Southwest Africa. All this territory was assigned to the British at the end of the war. Germany also controlled the Tanganyika Territory, on the east side of Africa. This also went to Great Britain. Most of the lesser German possessions on the west coast went to France. So now the British Empire controls nearly 4,500,000 square miles, France slightly less (a good deal of it desert), little Belgium and little Portugal each not much under 1,000,000 square miles, and Italy, 650,000. Spain has some influence over portions of Morocco.

The Union of South Africa is made up of the colonies of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, Transvaal, and the Orange Free State. It was formed in 1910, and has the same relation to Great Britain as have Canada, Australia, and the Irish Free State.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

How far is it from Cairo to Cape Town? across Africa from Cape Verde to Cape Guardafui? Trace a map of Africa and put in, in color, the regions controlled by Great Britain, France, Belgium, Portugal, and Italy. Look up an account of Liberia in an encyclopedia.

Longitude West 20° from Greenwich 0° 20° 40° 60°
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
FRANCE
SPAIN
TURKEY
Strait of Gibraltar
Algiers
Tangier
Tunis
Beirut
Damascus
Jaffa
Jerusalem
Port Said
Suez Canal
Cairo
Alexandria
Tripoli
Benghazi
MADEIRA IS. (Port.)
CANARY IS. (Span.)
Agadir
Morocco
Fez
MOROCCO
ALGERIA
TRIPOLI
EGYPT
Villa Cisneros
RIO DE ORO
TROPIC OF CANCER
Tropic of Cancer
Assuan
Medina
ARABIA
MAURITANIA
SAHARA
Wadi Halfa
Mecca
FRENCH WEST AFRICA
Timbuktu
St. Louis
Senegal R.
Dakar
Bamako
Niger R.
L. Chad
ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN
Omdurman
Khartum
El Obeid
Asmara
Aden
Berbera
FRENCH SOMALILAND
BRITISH SOMALILAND
Addis Ababa
ABYSSINIA
Fashoda
Freetown
Monrovia
NORTHERN NIGERIA
Zungeru
ASHANTI
IVORY COAST
GOLD COAST
KAMERUN
Lagos
Buea
Gulf of Guinea
FERNANDO PO (Span.)
PRINCE'S I. (Port.)
SPANISH GUINEA
ITALIAN SOMALILAND
Mogadiscio
BRITISH EAST AFRICA
Port Florence
L. Albert
Stanleyville
L. Victoria
EQUATOR
ST. THOMAS I. (Port.)
ANNOBON I. (Span.)
ATLANTIC OCEAN
ASCENSION I. (Br.)
Brazzaville
Leopoldville
BELGIAN CONGO
GERMAN EAST AFRICA
Mombasa
ZANZIBAR I. (British)
Dar es Salaam
INDIAN OCEAN
Tanganyika L.
Nyasa L.
Loanda
Benguella
ANGOLA
PORTUGUESE GUINEA
COMORO IS. (Fr.)
MAYOTTE I. (Fr.)
ST. HELENA I. (Br.)
WEST AFRICA
Victoria Falls
Zambesi R.
Mozambique
PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA
Beira
Tamatave
Antananarivo
MADAGASCAR
GERMAN SOUTH WEST AFRICA
Swakopmund
Walvis Bay (Br.)
Windhoek
BECHUANALAND
TRANSVAAL
ORANGE FREE STATE
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA
NATAL
Pretoria
Johannesburg
Delagoa Bay
Lourenco Marques
Majuba Hill
Durban
Bloemfontein
Cape Town
C. of Good Hope
Port Elizabeth
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
AFRICA
Showing the Colonies, Dependencies, Protectorates, and Spheres of Influence of the different European States until 1914
British
French
German
Italian
Portuguese
Spanish
Regions not under European control are uncolored
Railways { Finished Proposed
Scale of Miles
0 200 400 600 800 1000
20° 0° Longitude 20° East from 40° Greenwich 60°

Longitude West 20° from Greenwich 0°
20°
40°
60°
FRANCE
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
RUMANIA
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
SPAIN
Strait of Gibraltar
Algiers
Tangiers
Rabat
ALGERIA
TUNISIA
Mediterranean Sea
TURKEY
ANATOLIA
Beirut
Damascus
Jerusalem
Port Said
Alexandria
Cairo
Suez
MADEIRA IS. (Port.)
Agadir
Marrakesh
MOROCCO
Tripoli
Benghazi
CANARY IS.
SOUTHERN TERRITORIES
LIBYA
EGYPT
Villa Cisneros
TROPIC OF CANCER
Aswan
1st Cataract
Medina
ARABIA
RIO DE ORO
MAURITANIA
Halfa
Mecca
Suakin
FRENCH WEST AFRICA
St. Louis
Timbuktu
SENEGAL
FRENCH SUDAN
NIGER
ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN
Omdurman
Asmara
Khartum
Dakar
PORTUGUESE GUINEA
FRENCH GUINEA
UPPER VOLTA
L. Chad
El Obeid
FRENCH SOMALILAND
Aden
Berbera
Freetown
SIERRA LEONE
LIBERIA
NIGERIA
Kodok (Fashoda)
Addis Ababa
BRITISH SOMALILAND
ABYSSINIA
Monrovia
Accra
Lagos
FERNANDO PO (Span.)
Gulf of Guinea
PRINCE'S I. (Port.)
Stanleyville
UGANDA
KENYA
Kisumu
Nairobi
Mogadiscio
ITALIAN SOMALILAND
EQUATOR
ST. THOMAS I. (Port.)
ANNOBON I. (Span.)
BELGIAN CONGO
Brazzaville
Stanley Pool
Leopoldville
Lake Victoria
INDIAN OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
ASCENSION I. (Br.)
Boma
TANGANYIKA
Mombasa
ZANZIBAR I. (British)
Dar es Salaam
Tanganyika
L. Bangweulu
Lake Nyasa
Loanda
Benguella
ANGOLA
NORTHERN RHODESIA
COMORO IS. (Fr.)
MAYOTTE I. (Fr.)
Victoria Falls
Zambesi R.
Mozambique
MADAGASCAR
SOUTHWEST AFRICA
SOUTHERN RHODESIA
Antananarivo
Swakopmund
Walvis Bay (Br.)
Windhoek
BECHUANALAND
BASUTOLAND
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA
Mandatary of Union of South Africa
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
Delagoa Bay
Lourenco Marques
Johannesburg
Pretoria
Orange R.
Bloemfontein
Durban
SOUTH AFRICA
CAPE OF GOOD HOPE
Cape Town
C. of Good Hope
Port Elizabeth
AFRICA
Showing the Colonies, Dependencies, Protectorates, and Spheres of Influence of the different European States since the World War
British
French
Portuguese
Italian
Spanish
Regions not under European control are uncolored
Railways
Finished
Proposed
Scale of Miles
0 200 400 600 800 1000
20° 0° Longitude 20° East from 40° Greenwich 60°

MAP 24

EUROPE IN 1914

Compare this map with Map 18 and notice the number of new states that have appeared during the hundred years since the Congress of Vienna. In spite of the efforts of reactionary statesmen to suppress all revolutionary movements, the strong sentiment of nationalism that spread throughout Europe in the nineteenth century resulted in the formation of no less than ten new states.

It will be remembered that the Austrian Netherlands had been given to the kingdom of Holland to serve as a buffer state between the Dutch people and France. Encouraged by the French revolution of 1830 this little state, which was named Belgium, managed to secure its independence in 1832.

It will be observed that several of the ten new states are to be found in the Balkan Peninsula, where a great mixture of peoples and races had for so long been subject to the Turks and formed a part of the Ottoman empire. One by one these unhappy peoples managed to free themselves from their hated rulers, until by 1914 the territory of Turkey in Europe consisted of only a small area around Constantinople.

In 1829 the Greeks, with the aid of France, England, and Russia, secured their independence from the long-detested control of the Turks (Chapter XXXVI).

The Serbs, a Slavic people who had come into Europe as early as the seventh century, secured self-rule in 1830. By the treaty following the Crimean War, Moldavia and Wallachia were freed from Russian interference and united to form Rumania, the old province of Dacia under the Roman Empire (Map 5). After the Russo-Turkish War (1878) the Sultan was forced to recognize the complete independence of Serbia, Montenegro, and Rumania. Bulgaria was also made free except for the pay-

Longitude West from Greenwich 0 Longitude East from Greenwich 10

30
40
50
60
70
80
60
50
40
OCEAN
Tundras
Arctic Circle
Pechora R.
URAL MOUNTAINS
Ob R.
ASIA
Tobolsk
White Sea
Archangel
Dvina R.
Lake Onega
Lake Ladoga
Perm
St. Petersburg
Kazan
Kama R.
VALDAI HILLS
Riga
Nizhni Novgorod
Volga R.
Moscow
Duna R.
RUSSIA
Orenburg
Saratov
Ural R.
Kiev
Volga R.
Aral Sea
Dniester R.
Dnieper R.
Don R.
Astrakhan
Caspian Sea
Sea of Azov
Crimea
CAUCASUS MTS.
Odessa
Bucharest
Sevastopol
Black Sea
MT. ELBRUS
Baku
Tiflis
TRANS-CAUCASIA
Trebizond
Erzerum
MT. ARARAT
Constantinople
Hellespont
Bosporus
TURKEY IN ASIA
Dardanelles
Smyrna
Cyprus
(To Gr. Britain)
Crete
Comparative Area.
OHIO
41,040 Square Miles.

ment of tribute to the Sultan; while the powers (especially Austria) demanded that Albania, a small district peopled by Greeks, Serbs, and Bulgars as well as by its own native mountaineers, should be an independent state in order to shut Serbia off from the sea (Chapter XXXIX).

We have now only to speak of the way in which the Germans' hopes for a united fatherland were realized through the formation of the German Empire in 1870, and the unification of divided Italy into a kingdom during the same year.

Norway, which had been a free and independent kingdom but united with Sweden under the same ruler since 1815, in 1905 declared her entire separation from Sweden and selected as her king the son of the Danish monarch, who took the title of Haakon VII.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

Draw a map of Europe, marking the boundaries of the countries as they were in 1914. What capitals were selected as the seats of government of the ten new states? Locate these on the map, as well as the capitals of the older countries. Do you remember under the rule of what country Bosnia and Herzegovina were placed in 1908?

MAP 25

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, 1867–1918

The dual union of Austria-Hungary was formed in 1867 after the Austrian lands had been excluded from the North German Federation (Chapter XXXIII). This represents the last readjustment of the Hapsburg realms down to their break-up at the end of the World War in 1918. As a result of the war the various unrelated peoples which had been under Francis Joseph as emperor of Austria and king of Hungary formed separate states. What was left of Austria became a republic; Hungary remained a kingdom, but refused to accept a Hapsburg as its ruler.

Austria-Hungary, as it here appears, was made up of two independent states united in a federal union. It included the Austrian empire with its seventeen provinces, and the kingdom of Hungary, including Croatia and Slavonia. In 1908 Austria added to her already large Slavic population by annexing Bosnia and Herzegovina, which had been under the rule of the Turks. The conflicting desires of this mixture of peoples made the problem of governing the Austrian realms a very difficult one.

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

Draw an outline map of Austria-Hungary, and by means of the ethnographic map in Chapter XXXIX indicate the regions occupied by Germans, Czechs, Poles, Slovaks, Magyars, Italians, Serbo-Croats, and Rumanians.

Longitude
GERMAN EMPIRE
BOHEMIA
Carlsbad
Eger
Prague
Königgrätz
Pilsen
Tabor
Olmütz
Brünn
Troppau
Nuremberg
BAVARIA
Budweis
Ulm
Augsburg
Passau
Gmünd
LOWER AUSTRIA
Munich
UPPER AUSTRIA
Linz
Vienna
Schönbrunn
Pressburg
Gmunden
Salzburg
Bregenz
VORARLBERG
LIECHTENSTEIN
Innsbruck
BRENNER PASS
SALZBURG
Bad Gastein
GR. GLOCKNER
STYRIAN ALPS
STYRIA
Graz
TYROL
RHAETIAN ALPS
SWITZERLAND
Brixen
CARNIC ALPS
CARINTHIA
Klagenfurt
Bozen
Trent
TRENTINE ALPS
JULIAN ALPS
Laibach
Gorizia
CARNIOLA
Trieste
Agram
CROATIA and SLAVONIA
Lake Garda
Verona
Padua
Venice
Gulf of Venice
Fiume
Istria
Mantua
Modena
Bologna
Rimini
Florence
San Marino
Pisa
ITALY
Ancona
Lissa
Livno
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
Danube R.
Main R.
Eger R.
Elbe R.
Moldau R.
Inn R.
Salzach R.
Enns R.
Drau R.
Mur R.
Save R.
L. of Constance
THE MATTHEWS-NORTHRUP WORKS
10°
12°
14°
16°
50°
48°
46°
44°

Greenwich
20°
22°
24°
26°
28°
RUSSIA
POLAND
Vistula R.
Krakow
Lemberg
Bug R.
GALICIA
Dniester R.
Stanislau
CARPATHIAN MOUNTAINS
Hernad R.
Pruth R.
Czernowitz
BUKOWINA
48°
Nagy-Karoly
Nagy-Banya
Budapest
Grosswardein
Klausenburg
HUNGARY
TRANSYLVANIA
Szegedin
Baja
Maria-Theresiopel
Temesvar
Lugos
Hermannstadt
ROTHERTHURM PASS
Kronstadt
Peterwardein
Weisskirchen
Semlin
Orsova
Belgrade
Danube R.
Bucharest
RUMANIA
46°
SERBIA
NOVIBAZAR
Cettinje
44°
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
1867-1918
SCALE OF MILES
0 10 20 30 40 50 100 150

MAP 26

EUROPE AFTER THE WORLD WAR

EXERCISES AND QUESTIONS

Compare this map with Map 24 for the purpose of noting the changes which have occurred since the war. In the first place, what countries seem to have remained about the same in extent? Do you know any reason why Switzerland, Spain, Holland, Denmark, and Sweden show no changes in their boundaries? What countries show slight additions or loss of territory? What countries seem to have suffered the greatest change? What countries, if any, have disappeared? What countries have appeared in their place? What kingdom divided up between its neighbors at the end of the eighteenth century has reappeared? What countries seem to have profited by the dismemberment of Austria-Hungary? Where is Jugoslavia, or the country of the South Slavs? What country now forms the principal part of Czechoslovakia? What new countries do you find on the Baltic? Name all the new countries which once formed a part of Russia. In what direction has Greece expanded? What new possessions has Italy? Locate the Ruhr valley, Fiume, Smyrna, Prague, Geneva. What remains of Turkey in Europe do you now find?

EUROPE
AFTER THE
TREATY OF VERSAILLES
1920
Scale of Statute Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
30 Longitude 20 West 10 0 Longitude 10
60
50
40
ARCTIC CIRCLE
Reykjavik
ICELAND
Mt. Hekla
SHETLAND IS.
Bergen
Oslo (Christiania)
Göteborg
Copenhagen
Kiel
Hamburg
Berlin
Dresden
Prague
Munich
Vienna
AUSTRIA
Trieste
Venice
Fiume
Genoa
San Marino
Rome
Naples
Mt. Vesuvius
Palermo
SICILY
Mt. Etna
MALTA
Edinburgh
Belfast
Dublin
Manchester
Liverpool
London
The Hague
Amsterdam
Brussels
Paris
Bordeaux
Lyon
Geneva
Marseille
Barcelona
Madrid
Valencia
Palos
Malaga
Gibraltar (Br.)
Str. of Gibraltar
Lisbon
Oporto
BALEARIC IS. (Sp.)
CORSICA (Fr.)
SARDINIA (Italy)
MONACO
ANDORRA
BRITISH ISLES
IRELAND
IRISH FREE STATE
NORTHERN IRELAND
WALES
NETHERLANDS
BELGIUM
LUXEMBURG
SAAR BASIN
SWITZERLAND
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
BAY OF BISCAY
English Channel
Irish Sea
FRANCE
GERMANY
CZECHO
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
ITALY
MEDITERRANEAN
AFRICA
ADRIATIC
Pyrenees
Seine R.
Rhine R.
United States
0 Longitude 10 East

from 30 Greenwich 40
50
60
70
NOVAYA ZEMLYA
White Sea
Archangel
Dvina R.
Lake Ladoga
Leningrad (Petrograd)
Nizhni Novgorod
Volga R.
Moscow
Ufa
Samara
Ural R.
Ural Mts.
Kovno
Vilna
Kiev
Dnieper R.
Lemberg
Odessa
Sea of Azov
Astrakhan
CASPIAN SEA
Mt. Elbrus
Bucharest
Danube R.
BLACK SEA
Batum
Tiflis
Baku
ARMENIA
BULGARIA
Balkan Mts.
Constantinople
TURKEY
ANATOLIA
CRETE
COMPARATIVE AREA
400 MILES
250 MILES
PENNSYLVANIA
45,000 SQ. MILES
THIS RECTANGLE CONTAINS
100,000 SQ. MILES
from 30 Greenwich 40